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THE

Addresses and Journal of Proceedings

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

SESSION OF THE YEAR 1880,

AT

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NOTICE.

It was hoped that the proceedings at Chautauqua would be printed earlier than the proceedings are usually printed, but unforeseen delays have prevented this consummation so devoutly wished. The last paper forwarded to the Secretary did not reach him until December 4, and the last signature was placed in the hands of the binder December 22. If the readers of addresses would always hand to the Secretary their addresses just after reading them, carefully written, paragraphed, and punctuated, the annual volume could be distributed about the first of December.

There have been printed 1000 copies of the proceedings, and in the whole edition are bound the proceedings of the Department of Superintendence in Washington, in February, 1880.

W: D. HENKLE,
E. T. TAPPAN,
A. J. RICKOFF,
R. W. STEVENSON,
E. E. WHITE,
J. A. COOPER,
Committee on Publication.

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GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

First Day's Proceedings.

MORNING SESSION.

The Nineteenth Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association was opened in the Amphitheatre at Chautauqua, N. Y., at 9 A. M., Tuesday, July 13, 1880.

President J. ORMOND WILSON, of Washington, D. C., called the Association to order and prayer was offered by DR. LEMUEL MOSS, President of the Indiana State University, at Bloomington, Ind. The Association was welcomed by the REV. J. L. HURLBUT, Acting President of the Chautauqua meetings, in the following

ADDRESS.

MR. PRESIDENT AND MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION:

It is my pleasant duty on this occasion, to extend to you as our guests the greetings of Chautauqua. I regret, in common with you, that these words of welcome cannot be spoken by our President, Dr. VINCENT, who is the originator of Chautauqua, and better than any other person can represent it. But as he is now in lands across the sea, I am summoned as his representative, to express to you our gladness at the coming of your Association. We welcome you right heartily to these groves, consecrated to the cause in which you, like us, are workers. You are educators, and no department of a true education is foreign at Chautauqua, which aims to forward all the elements of a Christian culture. You represent, not a single state, but the entire country, and Chautauqua too embraces all sections of the land and all branches of the church in its fellowship. We welcome as fellow-workers all whose lives are employed in the effort to extend the privileges of knowledge and intelligence throughout our great country. We make you free of Chautauqua, and place at your service all within our bounds. We trust that you may so enjoy our lake-breezes and our shady avenues, and our ample Amphitheatre, as that in future years you may feel inclined to revisit our shores. In the name of the Chautauqua Association, then, I extend to you a cordial welcome, and wish for you the fullest success in your gathering.

To this address President WILSON responded in a few fitting words. He then introduced the Rev. A. D. MAYO of Massachusetts, who read the following paper on

OBJECT LESSONS IN MORAL INSTRUCTION IN THE COMMON SCHOOL.

Some twenty years ago there swept over the country a wave of reaction against all religious and moral instruction and worship in the common school. No considerable number of parents had complained of any violation of Religious liberty by sectarian proselytism in the schoolroom. I have repeatedly been assured by the masters of schools, by superintendents and committees, in all parts of the country, that no such general complaint ever did or does now exist among the parents of common-school children. This movement was a violent popular reaction, provoked by the attempt of the Roman-Catholic priesthood to build up their own church at public expense, by an open or indirect division of the public-school fund.

The Encyclical letter of Pope Pius the Ninth, of 1864, unmasked the conspiracy to capture or destroy the unsectarian common-school system of this Republic. The parochial system was already established in the province of Archbishop Purcell and that peculiar system of sacred banking inaugurated which has just exploded in the most disreputable financial bankruptcy west of the Alleghanies. In the city of New York that chain was being welded, with a Priest and a politician for alternate links, under whose pressure $10,000,000 have been abstracted from the treasury of that devoted metropolis during the past 12 years. Everywhere this priesthood was pushing the Papal idea of Education and the small politicians of all parties were falling into line. In feeble imitation of this bad precedent, a small but very active class in the Protestant churches was attempting to subsidize the State for Sectarian Schools or depreciating the free, higher, and secondary Education that could not be controlled by itself.

Here was just the sort of public irritation that precipitates an American public uprising, and it came. The vast majority of responsible people were determined to preserve the present system of schools from the assault of every hostile sect or party. They also declared that the public school should be under the supervision of the State and remain, as it always had been, a secular institution. And by "secular," the people meant, separated from the control of the church and worked with sacred regard to the religious liberty of every citizen. But the people never wavered in their conviction of the absolute necessity of thorough moral instruction, character-training, the discipline of the young into that virtuous manhood and womanhood demanded by a State where the citizen is the sovereign who recreates all public institutions by his yearly vote.

But just this excited and impulsive state of public opinion was the first golden opportunity for that class of social philosophers who, in every land, hold the most extreme views concerning the separation of National life from all "taint" or indirect contact with religion. At once appeared the full-fledged dogma, that the common school should be "secularized" in this ultra philosophic sense:—that in it there should be no recognition of the religious nature of man, no confession of the existence of God, no use of the Bible or other religious book, no song, prayer, or instruction that could jar on the conscience of the most thorough unbeliever in the spiritual nature of man.

Here then was the modern panacea for all the ills of religious controversy in the State;—the old device proposed by the grim humor of King Solomon, but taken up in dead earnest by the new wisdom, to stop the mouths of the clamorous mothers by killing the child. Religious and moral instruction have always been a source of distraction in national schools; let the American people cut the knot by putting out all that anybody chooses to call religious instruction. The theory was specious, as are all wholesale ways of disposing of a public inconvenience. It was eagerly caught up by one class of municipal politicians; by that style of "practical" men who cannot understand why the religious nature of a child cannot meekly go into Coventry during the school sessions of twelve years at the request of a new school regulation; by a small body of popular preachers and a few semi-secular religious journals, as a short and brilliant deliverance from a dilemma that threatened to become unmanageable; and by "The Liberal League," which has made it one of the planks of its political platform. The city of Cincinnati was selected as the place most thoroughly exasperated against the Papal program and, therefore, the fit theatre for the inauguration of the new secularism. After a long and bitter struggle, the theory was placed in the school regulations of that city. But, there, the movement came to a halt, and, with the exception of a few cities exasperated by the operations of the priesthood, the new secularism has found but tardy favor.

But the discussion of the whole question of morals and religion in schools was awakened in full force by the Cincinnati controversy. For the past 15 years our city teachers have walked among pitfalls and been embarrassed and worried in the moral instruction and discipline of their schools as never before.

Doubtless one great beneficent result has come out of the agitation and discussion of these past twenty years. The people have settled down upon two things;—First, that the complete American system of free education including its secondary and higher stories, shall be sustained. Second, that the American school, in all its grades, shall remain a school for character-training, thorough moral instruction, the discipline of the child into the manhood or womanhood essential to good citizenship in a free Republic.

In coming to this decision the people have worked out the superficial vein of ultra secularism in public instruction. This shallow expedient has been found the most unsatisfactory of all methods to everybody save its original advocates. The Catholic- and Protestant-church school men never touched it, though they were willing to let the politicians work it as the most destructive polemic against the common school. But while this agitation raged in the school board of Cincinnati, in behalf of compromise, Archbishop Purcell was threatening excommunication to every Catholic parent who placed his child in the "godless" public school. The new secularism deprives the pious Catholic laity of the last defence against the bishops. Now it can be said, with just that show of truth that carries such a people with it;—"your public school has now openly proclaimed itself a godless institution, repudiating all concerned for the moral and spiritual nature of your child." No wonder that the Catholic laity, deserted by their municipal politicians who have gone over to the new secularism on the one side, and assailed by the threat of excommunication from their priesthood, has virtually surrendered the most precious right of the American parent;—the right of an unsectarian public-school education for his children. The parochial school is now firmly established and reasonably sure of at least a partial success for a generation to come. The same cause has awakened to new efforts the advocates of sectarian education in secondary and collegiate schools, and millions have been poured forth to save the youth of christian parents from what is declared the godless system prevailing in the American high school and free university. It has also been revealed that, as a party movement, the new secularism is unfriendly to all save the most limited elementary education for the whole people. Its leading advocates, especially among the scientific and literary class, are pushing that idea of industrial, ultra-practical education for the masses, which will virtually change our present school to a class-school worked chiefly in the interests of the city mechanic and operative. It has further been seen that where the new secularism has full swing, the management of the schools has a tendency to pass out from the hands of that substantial class which has always been their main support, financial and moral, into the control of a "ring," itself dominated by a treaty between the Bishop and the party "Boss." The intrigues and corruptions of this school ring, in every city thus dominated, are gradually coming to the light.

But the most dangerous result of this new experiment is gradually appearing in the steady demoralization of the teachers in communities subjected to this experiment. The soul of the school is the teacher, and the soul of the teaching fraternity is that glorious phalanx of christian men and women who, through good report and evil report, reduction of salaries, payment in "script," and indiscriminate abuse from all quarters of society, stand in their place in the school-rooms and fold the little ones to their hearts all the more tenderly the louder the storm of faction rages outside. Happily, since the war, the vast majority of our public-school teachers have been women. It is the divine art of the noblest woman to have her own best and most beautiful way, spite of the tyranny or the intrigue of man. Forbidden to read the Bible, pray, or sing a sacred song; worried in discipline; watched, often by eyes unfit to look upon a pure womanhood; sneered at in the Drawing-rooms and lampooned by young college graduates just perched on metropolitan journalistic stools; these good women everywhere have stood by the children, during the past ten years, in a way the people will never forget. To them and the noble army of solid masters, wise superintendents and sane school-committee men, is the country indebted for sheltering the children, during these stormy years since the Revolution, from the desolating effects of the reckless financial and moral experimenting with our city and village schools.

Meanwhile the terrible revelations of public dishonesty, the growing curse of youthful depravity in great cities, the ominous rumblings of communism under the very foundations of society, the wild and reckless theories of social and private obligation blurted out on thousands of platforms by the new lights of the "new morality," the corruption of parties and politics which always holds the country on the edge of a new civil war, the condition of several millions of utterly unschooled children and youth, the appearance of another million of school children, in the south, all born in a revolution that laid society in eighteen States in ruins, half a million of them children of emancipated slaves, has thoroughly aroused the country till everywhere we hear the call for the more thorough moral instruction and discipline of children, especially in the public schools.

It is greatly to the credit of the majority of the responsible people who were at first taken by the specious promise of the new secularism that they have now seen their way through its thin disguise and are among the loudest in their demand for a great revival in moral instruction in the school-room. Doubtless, a critical examination would reveal a wide diversity of opinion among these people concerning the ultimate foundation and sanction of that morality so earnestly invoked in this new moral crisis in national affairs. But happily this discussion can have only a theoretical interest and does not threaten to embarrass the practical work of character-training in the schools. For all public and private purposes the moral training and discipline required in common schools is an instruction in and application of the simple christian morality. The one thing that separates the Christian nations from the great Mohammedan and Pagan empires is this code of Christian morals which has become the very soul of modern civilization, the ideal of progress in private life and public affairs and returns to its place, more emphatic after every defeat, and never spoke through christendom with an authority so largely acknowledged as to-day. We may confuse ourselves in endless debate with the champions of "the new ethics," or the naturalist who evolves the conscience of the saint from the pleasant titillation of contiguous lumps of jelly at the bottom of a pre-adamite sea. But the moment we come out of the study and face bona-fide young America, in his high chair at the table, on his bench at school, in a fourth-of-July pandemonium on the pavement, we find ourselves in the presence of this simple code of Christian morals, the soul of the Sermon on the Mount, the Ten Commandments, the Lord's prayer, the law of love, and the golden rule. This moral atmosphere in which we live is the result of the higher education of the upper side of the human race for the past eighteen hundred years. Anybody can write a thesis against it, but nobody can get out of it more than he can escape the changes of the seasons, or the procession of the light around the world. The morality that polarizes all American legislation, that sits in judgment on all our private and public life, is the same that must be inculcated, illustrated, and organized into the very life structure of the schools. Young Master Jonathan and his lively sister are no creatures of Fairy-land, frisking about, for five hours in the day, five days in the week, forty weeks in the year, in a moral vacuum. They are not the supreme court of appeal before which a secular schoolmistress will present the various theories and codes of morality for their ultimate judgment. They are very thoroughly "materialized" human creatures; to be governed in order that they may be taught; governed by the same morality that everywhere confronts them in their daily life; the morality of christendom, of the gospel of Christ.

So the people, through all this agitation and disputation about professed moral instruction in schools are coming to understand what every great thinker on education and every wise mother has insisted upon from the beginning of time;—that for the average child in an American life, school work must be far more than half a persistent instruction and training in character and manners and that for vast exceptional classes in our land it must be nine-tenths a system of moral instruction and discipline. The first thing every teacher is compelled to do is to attract her crowd of children to herself and inspire a respect or affection that enables her to change them from a mob to a school. The next thing is to awaken a love of knowledge and a sense of truth that will launch the child on his first attempt to learn. The third movement is to build up, by tireless and varied effort, that habit of obedience, application, self-control; the whole circle of virtues; that makes a persistent scholar of a feeble or wilful child. All this time goes on that training in human rights, social ethics, and personal adjustment to law and order which makes the common school the most vital training school of public virtue in the Republic. The whole discipline of the school (by which we mean everything save the study and recitation of lessons) is the foundation of school life. All this work is in the realm of moral instruction and without it no reliable mental progress is possible. Conceive if you can, the attempt to erect a permanent fabric of mental and æsthetic culture on the plantation character of the offspring of the Freedmen, on the myriads of children who throng the schools of our great cities, on the children of large classes of foreign immigrants coming to us from regions of European life almost out of sight of the commonplace moralities of our Republican society. The absurdity of a national American school that is not, in the most pronounced and thorough sense, a school of instruction and discipline in that simple christian morality which is the only assurance of private worth and public rectitude, is questioned only by people whose knowledge of schools is purely theoretical; is acknowledged by everybody who really knows, by observation and experience, the meaning of a school.

Now that there seems a reasonable amount of agreement on the thing to be done, the critical question comes up;—*how to do it.* I believe it possible to unite all but the most implacable advocates of ultra-ecclesiasticism or secularism in an advance movement to carry forward moral instruction in common school. And in looking about for the reconciling method, we find it at hand in that simple extension of the natural methods of instruction into the region of moral school discipline;—what may be called "*Object Lessons in Morals.*"

The great distinguishing movement in public schools of the past twenty years is the growth of that natural method of instruction we call the New Education. This method, which includes all that is valuable in object and oral instruction, "Quincy Method," Kindergarten, etc., means radically the elevation of things and ideas above words in all instruction of the young; the awakening and training the soul of the child to the power of obtaining knowledge, rather than the cramming a human mind with the contents of books; the preference of life and experience to outward mechanical precepts in all discipline of the character. In every branch of common-school instruction the new education, like a good angel, has come in and led the children into a new heaven and a new earth. Though often mistaken and perverted and then ridiculed, this is the new gospel of the American school which is slowly reconstructing it into the fit university of American citizenship.

Now one of the obstinate difficulties in this matter of moral instruction is that it is so often regarded solely in the light of the formal reading and exposition of good books and the drill in memorizing written precepts, backed by incessant preaching from the teacher's pulpit. We do not yet fully understand that this is really the least important part of the genuine character-training of a child anywhere. Every wise parent learns that the one sure way to fill his child with disgust for the highest things is this constant attempt to force in good precepts, which only tattoos the surface of its life with holy thoughts and well-turned maxims. The churches long since gave up this formal catechising, and the new Sunday school, as illustrated by Dr. Vincent here at Chautauqua, is strictly in the line of the new education. In the good old days, this method of moral instruction was omnipotent in all schools, as the same method of gorging the memory and hammering in knowledge from without had full swing. The result is the same in either case. In respect to moral teaching, this formal method still holds in many a school where the new methods of instruction in all other respects are in operation.

So when the new cry for a revival of moral instruction was heard, a demand came up that some general catechism of good morals should be drawn up, made acceptable to all parties, and introduced, as a special branch of study, in all schools. But this seems to us an impracticable idea. No such manual could be drawn up that would really satisfy anybody and every sect and school of thought would desire to supplement it with its own theory of the basis of morals. Such a formal catalogue of the virtues, emptied of all personal inspiration and real power, coldly committed to memory and expounded by timid teachers, would become a bore in every school;—not unlikely a temptation to profanity in the impatient boys victimized by a new study.

But if we turn from this crowd of theorists who, so far have had this discussion chiefly to themselves, to the superior teachers of the land who have the children themselves in charge, we shall find ourselves in a new world. For the past twenty years very little of this controversy has been shared by the teachers. While the clergy, the popular Scientists, the Magazinists, the Lecturers of the Liberal League, the ward Politicians, and other varieties of people who do not teach school have been laying down the law, the men and women who have had several million of American children in hand have been quietly at work doing in large measure what all these eloquent orators declared impossible to be done. Dr. Spear has printed a whole book which simply, in a thousand shapes, pelts us with the question;—"*what Religion shall the American school teach the child?* This and that great Doctor of Laws or expert in social science declares it impossible to walk upright in this preserve of moral instruction, sown with spring-guns and man-traps. But our superior teachers have demonstrated that several millions of children can be taught and disciplined in common schools without offence to any numerous class of parents, into a State that places the American common school at the head of all schools in christendom as a product of practical christian morality.

Anybody who will use his eyes can see that our common school, though dealing with the most difficult and dangerous elements of population, the masses of youth in great cities, and the most untamable age of youth, the age of the high-school boy and girl, has solved all the tough problems of discipline and character-training best of any species of educational institution. The one place that seems never upset by the storms or stagnations that vex our most famous Academical and University Schools is the higher region of the free graded, high and Normal schools. Whoever hears there of successful rebellion, hazing of Freshmen, bitter rivalries of classes, offensive bearing of cliques, curse of secret societies, troubles from excess of the appetites and passions, extravagant spending of money, sickening sentimentalities or explosions of sexual vice in these establishments? The fact is, while a portion of the clergy have been slandering the common school as "godless," there is no place in the United States of America, outside a genuine christian family, where young people are so well trained in good morals and manners, so respectful of human rights, living so constantly in the presence of the higher christian virtues and graces incarnate in noble examples;—no place where the essentials of a christain social state are, on the whole, so well observed as in the higher grades of our public schools. And this, not because the teachers of other schools and the colleges are less worthy, in themselves; less faithful, prayerful, devoted. Indeed, in the great mass of schools that profess to give special religious training, as in the Denominational Colleges, the devoted zeal of teachers is beyond all praise. The reason is that, under the pressure of a peculiar class of necessities, with the law of the land always in reserve, the common-school teachers, aided by the christian common sense of the whole superior class of the American people, during the past generations, has wrought out the only practicable and vital method of moral instruction in any school. This is the true object system, the way of the new education, the divine method of instructing through life in what concerns right-living in this world.

At the centre of this method of moral instruction stands the true teacher of the school;— himself the incarnation of christian morality demanded by the State. There was never yet any effective teaching of righteousness save through the consecrated personality of a righteous woman or man. A cultivated christian gentleman or lady who is also a skilled teacher is a perpetual object lesson in gentle manners, good morals and pure and undefiled religion. Anybody can watch a class of mischievous urchins through a perfunctory reading of the Bible lessons or lecture them "till all is blue" on "righteousness, repentance and judgment to come." The boys and girls, meanwhile, drawing caricatures of the lecturer, passing notes, or devising some new ingenuity of youthful depravity. But the moment the true teacher steps upon the platform, the whole life of the school room is polarized. Now every child is drawn, as by a magnet, to observe the act, the word, the look, and every motion of the unknown friend. The school resolves itself into a "committee of investigation," in which each member reports to his fellows, every hour in the day, concerning the incarnate wisdom and love that walks in beauty before this admiring throng. The sudden revolt of the worst element of the school against such a teacher is the finest testimonial to his power;—the raving of the demons before the gracious presence that shall cast them out. I speak now of a christian gentleman or lady who is also a skilled teacher;—not of any worthy person ungifted with the mystery of capturing the hearts and swaying the wills of children and youth. The true teacher can no more fail to sow the seeds of spiritual manhood and womanhood; to do all that human power can achieve to shape the character of the child and the youth; than the light can fail to banish the darkness when the God of day leaps over the hills.

The central obligation of our people, in school affairs, is to insist that only men and women of high character and ability to teach, shall be placed in the school-room. It is said this is practically impossible. But it is easier of accomplishment than a similar reform in any other region of life. There are few people anywhere who willingly consent to exposing their own children to coarse-minded, ignorant or immoral teachers. A resolute band of right-minded people can generally drive every such pretender from the school-room and, certainly, a vigorous union of the superior people can always elevate the character and ability of the teaching corps. But, whether easy or difficult, this is the one condition of genuine moral instruction in school from which there is no appeal. No device was ever yet invented by which a careless, untrained, immoral teacher could instruct a houseful of children in good manners and morals, or shape the character of any human being. Here, in the manhood and womanhood of the teacher, lies the very soul of the true method of moral instruction. And the present moral status of our common schools is what I have described, because their teachers, as a class, have doubtless been the most faithful, sympathetic, patient, and unselfish of any large body of people with whom the children come in contact during their most impressible years.

The point where pedagogic skill joins hands with high character in a teacher is the discipline of the school. Men and children are greatly moulded by the manners, habits, and customs of the society in which they are cast. Often this is the chief factor in the moral training of the youth. There are many children so shy, so obstinate, so conceited or so trivial, that no person can hold them up to right conduct. Only when they try to run down a granite wall of custom, or find themselves the blind ally of a law of the land, on every side hedged in by a social discipline as unyielding as the adamantine barriers of Providence, are they awakened to a sense of their folly or sin. The finest art of the wisest teacher is so to establish the discipline of his school; so to organize his little community that, as in a christian state, the superior class shall be in league with him and all the powers on earth and heaven that "make for righteousness" move together under his victorious leadership. One of the worst manifestations of the lower materialism and brutality of the day is the revolt of large classes of people against proper discipline of children in the school. The teacher of a private school that courts popularity by submitting to the barbarism of certain styles of young people of wealthy parentage is working a serious evil in the whole realm of character-training in education. When the teacher anywhere, in Kindergarten or University, presides in the school-room in daily peril of position, exposed to the insolence of the rich or the brutality of the vulgar, there is an end to all discussion of moral training, however magnificent may be the talk concerning the religious opportunities of that school.

I was lately amazed by the assertion of a distinguished clergyman, just awakened to the importance of moral instruction in schools, that there is now practically, little direct inculcation of morality in the public schoolroom. I am sure that no class of people, outside an exceptional class of parents, do half the amount of good work of this sort now done by the common-school teachers. It is all the better that it is not done in the grand style of EDWARD EVERETT, who used to adorn his pathetic chapel orations to the bad boys of old Harvard with quotations from Cicero's tearful appeals to the gratitude of the Roman people. But no day passes in any public school-room of our land without more than one opportunity to plant "a word in season" in the very centre of a human life. Children, of all others, need a preparation of the heart to receive the word of reproof or advice. They cannot sit bolt upright, in cold blood, at the table, or on the school bench, and absorb a stirring appeal for the higher life from a person to whom they are not attracted. And here it is that our superior class of woman teachers is so effective;—in the thousand crises of youthful life where the solemn warning, the tender appeal, the thrilling look, the averted face, the affectionate talk with the stubborn or vagrant little one, goes to the heart and takes hold on the issues of life. Surely no body of Clergy, not even the Catholic priesthood, has such an opportunity for the most vital and influential form of moral instruction. The experience of twenty years with teachers assures me that, on the whole, this opportunity is faithfully improved. Cannot everybody who hears me recall some occasion, in childhood or youth, when a teacher's word was the spell that unlocked an obdurate will or woke a latent power that has shaped the growing life?

Here, in the mysterious realm of personal power, in the ordering of wise discipline, in daily private conversation with the pupil at critical moments of his life, is a vast region of moral and religious influence, apart from the open and formal teaching through lectures and books. And now comes in another great opportunity. The new methods of instruction, in which so much depends on the direction given by the teacher to the power of observation and of reasoning in the scholar, offer numberless opportunities for the most radical instruction in habits of physical, mental, and moral life. Every language lesson can easily be made a lesson in that refined and pure speaking which is the beautiful garment of a chaste and gentle soul. Every half-hour with the little children at their exercise in the observation of familiar animals and plants, or the greater wonder of their own frame; every meeting with the science class in the laboratory or evening on the school-house roof with the Telescope; may so easily guide the new-born wonder along the upward slope that mounts to manhood's ecstatic vision of the all-enfolding and all-pervading God. How easy to steer the recitation in History up to a climax of admiration for one of those noble characters or exalted periods in the life of a great people, without which history would be indeed, what surly Old Doctor Johnson used to call it, "a Library of last year's Almanacs." What another study is Geography where every prominent headland is lighted up by some beautiful or heroic association o humanity? Might not the time wasted in wrestling over mathematical puzzles be fitly employed in opening to young America the awful relation between figures and fidelity to trust; demonstrating that honesty is the most practical end of all practical life? So of every study as now taught by the living word, illustrated by the pencil, carried out into reading and thinking, all can bear upon character, and blend with the finest training in christian morals.

I have been told, by people famous enough to know better, that all this is a usurpation by the teacher of the inalienable right of the parent or the spiritual adviser, and that school work means cold science alone. But I fancy that the most unscientific spot in this world is a room where dead facts, abandoned by the living soul, cut away from the vitalizing influence of the man who beholds them, are stretched on the dissecting table to be dismembered by the cold steel of a soulless pedagogue before a dull and drowsy class. Dead science is only another name for nescience. So I must be pardoned for doubting either the mental or moral soundness of the man who seriously objects to such teaching; unless, indeed, it overleaps its own limit and usurps the chair of the Professor of Dogmatic Theology. The parents do not object. Nine-tenths of this outcry against teachers comes from the theorists whose standing grievance is that they cannot capture and supervise them in the interests of their own pet Philosophy or creed.

And now, when the teacher has set in motion all the radical, vital methods of the new education, comes in the fit use of books in moral instruction. In the modern school the child is taught to use a book as an aid in the personal study of nature and the independent conduct of life. There is a proper use of books in moral instruction, especially for children of advanced years.

And, first, comes in the fit way of using the Bible. To my mind, no outrage against religious liberty and good culture is so intolerable as to place in the "Index Expurgatorius" this one book which is the corner-stone of national morality, the moral hand-book of modern civilization, the chief classic of the great English and German tongue. But almost equal to this folly, perhaps equally disastrous to the school, is that pedantry which fences off its use to the mechanical, formal, regulation method of reading, separated from all other books, droned out like a charm or run through with that indecent flippancy which is an insult to any worthy volume. Why not leave the Bible on the teacher's desk to be used in the moral instruction, as the big Dictionary lies there for training in the mother-tongue? No wise teacher would undertake to improve the language of his class by a dry reading aloud, without note or comment, of Webster's Unabridged. I would give to the teacher the right to use the book in the way his broadest judgment should direct; as a brief opening reading for worship, hung up in mottoes on the wall, or written out on the blackboard, quoted at any critical moment of discipline, in any of the ways in which a wise instructor under suitable school regulations could devise for bringing it to bear upon the life. First the life; then the word; is the fruitful method of moral instruction in the people's school. The school literature, consisting of all the matter brought before the reading classes, affords an admirable opportunity for "pointing a moral" or directing the interest of the child to the upper region of human life. And here I feel moved to enter a protest against a tendency in the authors of our school Readers to lower the tone of school reading, and fill their books with lifeless pages made up to illustrate mechanical rules or selected from the lighter and thinner strata worked by the transient authors of the hour. I have read through whole volumes of School-Readers where there were not a dozen pages that would stir the blood of a noble boy; filled with that graceful twaddle which is spoiling the mental digestion of thousands of youth; or elaborately gotten up to dodge the prejudices of Priests and politicians and scientists till the whole Book reminded one of a hunted rabbit dodging in and out the lengths of a Virginia rail fence. And I could show you Readers so "fearfully and wonderfully made" that they would need no revision if constructed for use in a school of trained Dogs, learned Pigs, and white Mice; books from which you cannot extract a thought that the child who reads them has a nature above the world of pets amid which he lives; that there is any morality above the sunny good nature that he shares with the playful kitten and the twittering sparrow; that there is any such realm of existence as the immortal soul in man; where there is neither the name nor the remotest implication of the creating God. And, generally, our School-Readers seem constructed on the idea that the way to teach a child to read is to adapt a lesson to his lowest comprehension, making every sentence a sort of patent crutch for his languid attention. I believe no child ever learned to read in a way that stirred anybody's heart till his own soul was inflamed by some uplifting sentiment, and his whole body called to the front to express the noble thought that crowds his heart. Our children despise this puerility that we bring forth to illustrate our elaborate theories of approaching the infant mind. The way to find a boy is to go after him with something above his lower self; some challenge to the true, the beautiful, the good, the marvellous, the inspiring. Give him a reading-lesson full of grand things to stir generous souls, and though he may not be able to spell or define every word therein, he will cut his way out of any everglade of words between the story and his impetuous awakened soul. No series of Readers ever made so profound an impression upon the character of a whole generation of school children as the National

Reader and American First-Class Book, compiled by JOHN PIERPONT of glorious memory. Thousands of American men and women owe their noblest enjoyment of English Literature and some of the highest aspirations of their lives to the thrilling pages of those rare volumes in which the school-boy met and saluted almost every great author in his mother-tongue.

Especially now, when our teachers have undertaken to direct the reading of the children in connection with the public library, can we make Literature the most effective teacher of morals and the finest artist in character. Never was the printed page so much a part of the spiritual life of youth, as to-day in our land. Our children will read; but what they read is often the index to the manner of woman or man they shall become. There are lines of reading which, like forest paths among the mountains, climb up to plateaus and summits whence life is beheld outspread in Providential order, and the spirit finds itself in lofty fellowship with Nature, Humanity and God. Up these lines may every wise and consecrated teacher conduct the children entrusted to her care; and woe to the teacher who fails to do it.

It is an old story that while the scientists of Europe were demonstrating that no steamship could safely go to sea, the first Ocean Steamer quietly crossed the Atlantic. So, while several classes of famous people have been wearying themselves with subtle reasonings concerning the religious question in the common school, our American Public School Teachers have been elaborating the only vital, natural and effective method of moral instruction, both through the discipline of life and the fit use of good books. And if it be objected that this method is useless unless worked by superior teachers, I reply;—that the whole of morality and religion in any school district centres on the duty of placing a skilled teacher of high character in that school-room at all hazards. Better ride after a mule team and draw water from the town pump, and dress your boys in butternut and sheep's gray, and your girls in home-made flannel, and go back to the old meeting-house without a stove;—better be and do anything respectable and lay up your treasures in the Heaven of a superior schoolmaster or schoolmistress for your children; than live in all the glory and grace of modern refinement with your little child in the hands of a teaching man who never saw the vision of the new education and cannot say his soul is his own. Any teacher fit to be in the smallest district school can reach up to this ideal and achieve as much of it as is given to human imperfection in this very human United States of America.

And, while we urge the establishment of all fit schools and agencies to train our teachers for their mighty task, the last word in Normal Instruction, in family, in church, in school, in life, is to point to the one sovereign Teacher of humanity who, lifted up in the far-off time as the divine object lesson in all that man should become, has drawn all men unto him, recreated History, awakened hidden powers in the human souls, and, simply, by being himself, is now changing the kingdoms of this world to the kingdom of Heaven.

☞ The papers in this volume prepared by E. A. Spring, J. M. Gregory, J. C. Gilchrist, G: P. Brown, W: T. Harris, Mary W. Hinman, E. O. Vaile, W. N. Hailmann, J. L. Pickard, Mrs. Louise Pollock, F. A. March, and Chas. Francis Adams, Jr., are printed by their desire or consent with the following variations from ordinary spelling:—

1. From a word ending in *ogue*, *ue* is dropped, when *ogue* is pronounced ŏg. When *ogue* is pronounced ōg the *ue* is retained. Examples:—*dialog*, *catalog*, *pedagog*, etc., and *vogue*, *rogue*, *prorogue*, etc. *Tongue* is changed to *tung*.

2. From a word ending in *e* silent, *e* is dropped when the dropping does not suggest a wrong pronunciation of the word. Examples of dropping the *e*:—*definit*, *respit*, *infinitiv*, etc. Examples of its retention:—*finite* *polite*, *invite*, etc.

3. From a word ending in *ette*, *te* is dropped; as in *coquet*, *gazet*, etc.

4. From a word ending in *amme*, *me* is dropped as in *gram*, *program*, etc.

5. In a word in which the digraph *ph* represents the sound of *f*, it is changed to *f*; as in *alfabet*, *filosofer*, etc.

6. From a word ending in a double letter, one of the double letters is dropped when the dropping of the letter does not suggest a wrong pronunciation of the word; as in *eg*, *stil*, *till*, *shal*, *clas*, etc. Both the *s's* are retained in *preceptress* because *preceptres* would suggest the pronunciation *precepters*. In *all*, *ball*, *call*, etc., both *l's* are retained to preserve the sound of *a*.

7. From a word containing the improper diphthong *ea*, *a* is omitted when its omission does not suggest a mispronunciation of the word; as, *helth*, *heth*, *deth*, *welth*, *stelth*, *erth*, etc.

8. In a word ending in *ed* sounded like *t*, *ed* is changed to *t* when such change does not suggest a mispronunciation of the word; as, *wisht*, *heapt*, *leapt*, etc. When there is a double letter before the *ed* one of them is dropped; as in, *slapt*, *mapt hist*, *past*, etc., for *slapped*, *mapped*, *hissed*, *passed*, etc. The *ed* is retained in *closed*, *placed*, *liked*, *hoped*, etc., in order to preserve the sound of the radical vowels.

9. In a word ending in *ed* having the sound of *d*, *e* is dropped when the dropping does not suggest a mispronunciation; as in *reformd*, *alarmd*, *steamd*, *charmd*, *doomd*, etc. The *e* is retained in *prorogued*, *qualified*, *replied*, etc., to preserve the pronunciation. When the *e* is preceded by a double letter one of these letters is dropped when the dropping does not suggest a mispronunciation; as, *cald*, *bald*, *feld*, *referd*, *conferd*, etc. In *willd*, *filld*, etc., the double letters are retained to preserve the pronunciation.

10. Letters are also dropped from other words such as *givn*, *tho*, *thoroly*, etc., for *given*, *though*, *thoroughly*, etc.

E. O. Vaile of Illinois by application in person or by letter to the readers of papers at Chautauqua, obtained the consent of the above-named persons to print their papers in a partially-reformed spelling. The consent was given in some cases in accordance with a strong desire, and in others with a simple willingness to aid the reform. No guide has been furnished the secretary as to the extent that changes should be made, except an allusion to the five rules suggested by the Spelling-Reform Association. He has been unwilling to follow these rules in all respects, because in some cases they suggest mispronunciations. He has therefore made a set of rules of his own embodying these and also those used by the *Home Journal*, but stated in such a way as to make the proper exceptions to their applications.

EDWARD A. SPRING, of Perth Amboy, N. J., then spoke as follows upon

MODELLING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND IN THE KINDERGARTEN.

The erliest years of the child ar claiming more attention than of old—as of paramount importance in the development of the perfect man.

We ar studying the proposition that the individual develops as does the race—and when we notice a strong instinctiv tendency common to young children and savages, we ar lerning that *there* is a point for the educator to consider, and perhaps turn to good account.

From the erly centuries of our era, comes the sweet legend of the child JESUS—He and and his playmates modeld doves of clay—and his dove flew. But the fact of children's modelling eighteen hundred years ago was not remarkabl—they always show the intensest eagerness to work in any plastic material.

At the meeting of this Association in Washington (The Dep't. of Superintendence—Feb. 6, 1879) our president, Mr. WILSON, offerd a resolution drawn up by WALTER SMITH, which was unanimously adopted. It recognized the necessity of industrial education in the public schools of America—and declared that industrial drawing should be taught in the day schools, "and that industrial drawing, *modelling*, and applied design—— should be taught in free evening classes."

There ar doubtless many peopl who would be surprised at a proposal that school children should lern modelling. For modelling, until Froebel placed it among the occupations of the Kindergarten was only recognized as a technical process of the Sculptor, or as an objectional pastime from which children wer to be restraind.

Now I would not propose to add to our present school cours a branch of the fine arts—we hav too many branches alredy. As Prof. JOSEPH PAYNE says: (I quote at second-hand from Consul HITZ.) "Some think the standard may be raisd by the addition of new subjects to the curriculum of elementary instruction. If, however, the machinery of our education is defectiv—and the results prove that it is—giving it more work to do is surely a unique device for improving its action. The mill grinds badly, and the grist is unsatisfactory; and the remedy proposed is to put more corn into the hopper."

Here is an easily-obtaind material employd for thousands of years as the best for making certain forms, and still used as before, in technical branches of sculpture and pottery. FROEBEL saw its possibilities and gave it an important place in his system. Had he been a sculptor, potter, or dealer in clay—as I am, peopl would hav said that was but natural. Many a shoemaker, wer he founding a system of education, would make the old claim;" "there's nothing like lether!" But FROEBEL, with an excellent combination of philosophy and common sense, used clay in the Kindergarten.

In a substance so plastic and grateful as clay the making of a desired form is reduced to the least mechanical difficulty. If it is complicated, the less the shape is clear to the mind, the greater the need of a substance easy to work. That is simply why sculptors have followed the practice of making a model in clay, in order to secure in the easiest way the subtl forms they attempt, before committing them to harder substances. Now what I would suggest as practicabl is, that in our Schools we should giv this same material, this plastic clay into the children's hands—and starting thus with Mother Earth let them shape it into forms such as they ar already familiar with, and progress to forms desirable to have them lern.

It may be many years before the majority of children hav the benefits of the Kindergarten; but any teacher now, with a few cents worth of clay from the nearest pottery, can giv a school some of the advantages possesd by the prehistoric savage. There are tribes among our Indians where a practice in rude clay work givs facility to the fingers, and endless enjoyment to the Indian children as they portray in their clay attempts, the life of the village and the chase.

We should try to giv the activ growing minds fuel to consume, both in and out of school. Start in our schools an interest in subjects adapted to the daily life of the pupils. The school children of any given neighborhood hav the practical aspects of life presented to them on the road to and from school that should, and do raise innumerabl questions in their tireless heads.

They ar well aware that some of the things that they ar told for the sake of teaching them, in the school, in the home, or in the church, may be mere theory; for, hav they not known the most positiv assertions of their elders disproved? "Did not Mr. XYZ declare that it was going to be very cold; and yet the wether turnd warm?"

But the daily facts of life, and work, and accident, which our pupils know ar not prepared with a view to influencing them, exert more force for that very reason, in forming their lives, than any amount of exhortation.

Still more, if possibl, ar they influenced, when under favorabl conditions, by what they themselves do with their hands.

I do not believ I can urge too strongly here, the importance of letting the pupil do the clay work himself; for there comes at once a curiously-strong feeling of the rights of property in a child when modelling; and in many ways advantages which this work affords may be lost if the teacher touches the clay. Try the letting alone, and you will often hear the triumphant, "I did it all myself!"

We need some way of giving our children general principles in regard to the properties of matter—and an alfabet of hand-work—while the fingers ar young. The advance schools where special trades might be taught would then begin with fingers possessing skill—insted of being "all thums."

Mr. Spring's time having expired before he had an opportunity of giving practical illustrations to the extent wanted, a subsequent time was set for this special work out of the regular hours of meeting.

L. D. Brown, of Hamilton, Ohio, the Hon. S. R. Thompson, of Lincoln, Neb., and C. B. Rheem, of Washington, D. C., were, on motion, appointed assistant secretaries, and Sam. Findley, of Akron, Ohio, M. S. Campbell, of Youngstown, Ohio, Edwin O. Vaile, of Oak Park, Ill., J. F. Lukens, of Lebanon, Ohio, and Edmund A. Jones, of Massillon, Ohio, as assistant treasurers.

The Hon. Jas. P. Wickersham made, in behalf of the Committee to secure the passage of an act incorporating the Association, the following

REPORT.

Jan. 21, 1880.—A Bill to incorporate the National Educational Association was introduced in the Senate, read twice, and referred to the Committee on Education and Labor.

Feb. 12, 1880.—It was reported favorably by the Committee on Education and Labor, and was read the first and second times by unanimous consent.

March 19, 24, and 25, 1880.—It was fully discussed, amended, and finally passed by the Senate.

June 5, 1880.—It was reached on the Calendar of the House, taken up, discussed, and referred to the Committee on Judiciary.

On motion of S. R. Thompson, of Nebraska, the report was received and Committee continued. The following is a copy of the bill as originally printed:

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

February 12, 1880.

Mr. Morrill, from the Committee on Education and Labor, reported the following bill; which was read the first and second times by unanimous consent.

A BILL

To incorporate the National Educational Association.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That J. Ormond Wilson, District of Columbia; James H. Smart, Indiana; Norman A. Calkins, New York; David N. Camp, Connecticut; Edwin C. Hewett, Illinois; George W. Fetter, Pennsylvania; Grace C. Bibb, Missouri; Henry F. Harrington, Massachusetts; James M. Garnett, Maryland; W. Colegrove, West Virginia; J. C. Gilchrist, Iowa; William D. Henkle, Ohio; Eli T. Tappan, Ohio; John Eaton, District of Columbia; John Hancock, Ohio; John D. Philbrick, Massachusetts; Mrs. M. A. Stone, Connecticut; A. M. Gammell, Rhode Island; Edward Danforth, New York; William N. Barringer, New Jersey; James P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania; D. W. Harlan, Delaware; Henry E. Shepherd, Maryland; J. H. Peay, Virginia; T. M. Marshall, West Virginia; Gustavus J. Orr, Georgia; W. P. Haisley, Florida; W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky; Helen Hoadley, Tennessee; Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, Ohio; E. E. White, Indiana; S. H. White, Illinois;

Lewis McLouth, Michigan; John P. Bird, Wisconsin; William F. Phelps, Minnesota; J. L. Pickard, Iowa; William T. Harris, Missouri; Alexander Hogg, Texas; Zalmon Richards, District of Columbia; A. B. Corliss, Vermont; Susan E. Blow, Missouri; S. A. Baer, Pennsylvania; Lelia E. Patridge, Pennsylvania; E. Benjamin Bierman, Pennsylvania; H. B. Whittington, Pennsylvania; Lemuel Moss, Indiana; M. A. Newell, Maryland, their associates, the officers and members of the association known as "The National Educational Association," and their successors, are hereby constituted and declared to be a body corporate by the name of "The National Educational Association," in and of the District of Columbia.

Sec. 2. That the National Educational Association shall have power to make and amend its constitution, by-laws, and rules, consistently with law, and to hold, by purchase, grant, gift, or otherwise, real or personal estate not exceeding fifty thousand dollars in value.

Sec. 3. That twenty-five members of the National Educational Association shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business, and that said association shall meet and organize under this charter on the first Monday of July, eighteen hundred and eighty, and annually thereafter shall meet at such time and place as it may designate; and whenever called upon by any department of the government shall investigate and report upon any educational subject without compensation for such services.

Sec. 4. Congress may at any time alter, amend, or repeal this act.

Dr. E. E. White of Indiana, by order of the Board of Directors presented the following as an amendment to the constitution.

That *Art.* IV. *Sec.* I. be amended by adding "; and any educational association may secure a perpetual directorship by a like donation of one hundred dollars, the director to be appointed annually or for life."

The following letter from Prof. Alex. Hogg, of Texas, was referred to the Secretary for reply.

Texas and Pacific Railway Company,
Marshall, Texas, The Fourth of July, 1880.

To the President and Members of the National Educational Association meeting in Chautauqua, N. Y.

My Dear Brethren:—It pains me not to be able to meet with you this year; it pains me much more to give you the reason why I cannot.

In November last (22nd) the Governor, at the instance of the President, convened the Board of Directors of the A. and M. College of Texas, to determine whether a cadet failing to receive promotion by the vote of a majority of the Faculty should be promoted over their action or not. The Board decided he was not entitled to said promotion, thus sustaining the action of the majority of the Faculty—but decided also, that there had grown out of this case such a want of harmony in the Faculty as to render a reorganization necessary; hence the resignations of all were asked—all the old officers going out and an entirely new Faculty were appointed. As to the wisdom of the Board, at this time in the session (leaving out of the question the justice to the individual members of the old Faculty) I have nothing to say: simply then abided by the action of the Board, and now recur to it only to explain my present status. Since that time I have been in the Railway service. First with the Engineer Corps of "The Central," now in the land department of this company. And *while I feel* under obligations the most grateful to these officials for their confidence in me—and their kind consideration in thus giving me employment when I was without it—when Boards of Education, when Governors and other "ex-officio" members in charge of the various educational institutions of the State had no place, or position for me, yet I do not feel that I have less interest in the great educational enterprises of my country. My zeal, my labors, and a moderate success is well known to many of your honorable body. I trust that my present relations with the great carrying interest of the country is simply but

"A SIDE-TRACKING"

for the passing of the great through line—fast passenger train of education, upon which, I again, may secure, and right early too, a place; if not of "General Manager," at least as one of the "train hands." Next to the ministry of the Gospel is the ministry of teaching—next to the educational interest of our country, I prefer the Railway service; believing the locomotive to be the great pioneer of civilization the "*Avaunt Courier*" of Educational Reform, and the general enlightenment of the whole people.

I believe the whistle of the Texas and Pacific locomotives will carry our civilization, our enterprise, our religion, and our language into the rocky Sierra Nevadas, until, not only Mexico, but from the lakes to the gulf, and from ocean to ocean will be ours, and that too without a battle-flag. But to the main point, I must not allow myself to forget that in the past scholastic year, not only troubles, but real catastrophes have befallen the A. and M. Colleges not in one or two States, but in several.

With regard to the cause, I venture to suggest, that it will be found, that it has all grown out of the complications of attempting to run in the same institution these three leading features, viz.:—Agricultural, Mechanical, and Military education. The military, so far as I have been able to learn (and this is corroborated by my personal experience) is the source of all the troubles. And this I think grows out of the further fact, that the military to be of any use whatever must be thoroughly equipped in all its departments and requirements, while the act of congress granting lands for the support of these colleges, intended it should be secondary and cultivated entirely as a means of discipline and good order,—not at all intended to make proficients in arms, but simply as a gymnastic exercise. Still I have great hope in these schools, and that too in the properly adjusting the military so as to make it work harmoniously in connection with the other departments—to make it as it really can be, a power in controlling and subjecting the young men to wholesome and necessary restraint.

I have spent the last ten years, the vigor of my life—in trying to build up and foster industrial education. Not by lessening or omitting the higher liberal branches but by adding, as I have often said, to liberal education practical education; not with a view of supplanting the former—but of extending it—uniting theory and practice—theory explaining practice and practice illustrating and enforcing theory.

I believe this to be the true interpretation of the mission of the State A. and M. Colleges; and I am not without hope, that there will soon be a place found for my services. It may not be in Texas, or even in the south, but somewhere in this broad peacefully-united happy republic.

With regard to colleges for

"OUR DAUGHTERS"

endowed by the general government—these must come, sooner or later, as a simple act of justice on the part of congress. From this State a large delegation of devoted and honored teachers have gone up to participate with you in this annual gathering. I commend them to you, and ask for them, that large hospitality, and deep sympathy, and warm welcome you have so often extended to me.

They will tell you what is doing in Texas—In her primary and higher schools—in her colleges, whether they be State or denominational.—I feel that you will be cheered at their account,—that you will bid them God speed in their laborious yet successful work.

While I have addressed you as "*Dear Brethren*," do not for a moment suppose that I have forgotten the devoted women who have so often met with us, and whose familiar faces, I now see, as they come in, wait before, and go out of your Association. Greet these sisters, and bid them continue to inspire these meetings with their presence—to guide them with their counsels, and to strengthen them with their experience.

Enclosed, I send you my annual contribution. Please allow my name to remain upon your roll, and I beg that while I am not of you in the flesh, that you will consider me ever with you in the spirit.

For your next meeting, 1881—the "centennial" not of the declaration, but the centennial of the real achievement of American Independence—if you cannot come to Texas—if not to the south—come nearer to the great heart of our great nation, is the request of

Yours fraternally,

ALEX. HOGG.

Various announcements were made by the Presidents. The Secretary, W: D. Henkle, of Salem, Ohio, made a statement of the financial condition of the Association, terms of membership, etc. The Presidents of the different departments made announcements in relation to the times and places of the afternoon meetings of the Departments.

Adjourned to meet at 8 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 8 P. M. The Chair announced the following committees:—

Committee on Resolutions:—E. E. WHITE, Ind., A. P. MARBLE, Mass., G. J. ORR, Ga., W: T. HARRIS, Mo., and J: M. GREGORY, Ill.

Committee on Nominations:—J. P. WICKERSHAM, Penn., J: W. DICKINSON, Mass., D. N. CAMP, Conn., N. A. CALKINS, N. Y., A. J. RICKOFF, Ohio, LEMUEL MOSS, Ind., E. O. VAILE, Ill., LOUIS SOLDAN, Mo., S. R.

Thompson, Neb., G. J. Orr, Ga., Wm. H. Payne, Mich., J. L. Pickard, Iowa, Zalmon Richards, D. C., M. C. Fernald, Me., O. V. Tousley, Minn., J. D. Pickett, Ky., A. S. Cooke, Md., A. M. Bradley, N. C., W. A. Cate, Tenn., A. B. Lemmon, Kansas, Chas. S. Young, Nev.

The Secretary read the following letters:—

Mentor, Ohio, July 6th, '80.

My Dear Sir:

Yours of the 29th June, at hand. I am compelled to tell you at last that I cannot be with you at your coming meeting. I anxiously desired to go, but my engagements are such now that I cannot get away from home. With sincere thanks,

Very Truly Yours,
J. A. GARFIELD.

J. ORMOND WILSON,
Washington, D. C.

Boston, July 8th, 1880.

President J. O. Wilson, Chautauqua, N. Y.
My Dear Sir:

Two causes, each sufficient in itself and both allied, irresistible, have prevented my keeping the engagement you made for me at Chautauqua; and as you are entitled to an explanation I may as well say that these causes are, (1) systematic and never-ending overwork, and (2) the murderous east wind of this otherwise Eastern Paradise.

Please offer the excuses of a wearied and debilitated teacher to your congregation, and say that if you desire it, my paper shall be completed for your proceedings, and at your service, in time—and so forgive me as you hope to be forgiven. WALTER SMITH.

Walter Smith being absent the Consul General, of Switzerland, John Hitz, of Washington, D. C., read the following paper on

NORMAL TRAINING FOR THE GIRLS' INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS OF THE CANTON OF AARGAU, SWITZERLAND.

There is no lack of *Industrial-School* advocates, and theories are abundant, how an institution of this kind should be conducted, but of practical and experienced guides of men and women, who have actually proved themselves successful instructors in this branch of education, one encounters a most noticeable scarcity. One might not inaptly compare this circumstance to the period preceding free schools, when only persons were supposed to have taught who were peculiarly fitted by nature to do so. And it has been asserted, that after all, this was the only true standard for aspirants to pedagogical responsibilities.

The teacher however, who confines him or herself to the merely intellectual branches of education is not subjected to the immediate scrutiny of the Public to the extent that is the case with the instructor in manual or skilled labor. Whilst the great majority of people, neither in the first or last instance may be said to be qualified to judge of the methods employed by the one or the other of these teachers, everybody almost is in a measure competent to judge of the daily results attained by the instructor of a so-called industrial class. And judgment is freely rendered alike by the housewife and the mechanic, the farmer and artist.

It becomes necessary then, if we aspire to introduce successfully industrial training, first of all to secure competent teachers for this branch of education. In fact, the question of introducing industrial training into the curriculum of the Public Schools, is altogether premature until instructors are at hand qualified to teach children in a methodical and practical manner, the elementary principles of skilled labor in its various departments. The subject, however, covers so vast a field, that, with a view more clearly to present details, only one branch of industrial training will be treated of on this occasion, and in order, more readily, to familiarize ourselves with the subject, I have selected that class of industries incumbent upon every housekeeper.

To avoid all theorizing and effort to present a complete system of acquiring a knowledge of certain handicraft, this paper will omit to state what the writer thinks, might or should be done, but shall be restricted to giving an outline of what *is now being done* in one of the Cantons of Switzerland in the matter of Normal training to supply the girls' department of the Public Schools with competent teachers of certain industries.

In thus treating the subject concretely, we shall be better able to judge of its merits aud demerits. Generalities will be avoided, and details confined within a well-defined limit. Every one will thus be able to judge readily to what extent the system referred to will be applicable in his or her locality, and thereupon act accordingly. Based upon these introductory remarks, I shall now proceed briefly to present the regulations which govern the supervising principals, or head instructresses of the girls' "Industrial" or so-called "Working-Schools" of the Canton of Aargau (comprising within an area of 543 square miles, a population of 200,000 inhabitants.) These regulations were issued more than twenty years ago (1859) and continue with but slight modifications in force at the present time. By giving them even a cursory review, one may better appreciate what is requisite before even the more essential branches of industrial education can successfully be incorporated in any system of Public Schools.

Regulations relative to the Appointment of Supervising Principals for Girls' Industrial Schools.

FEBRUARY 10th, 1859.

For the purpose of carrying out certain provisions of the municipal School laws relating to the teaching of industries, the Educational Board of the Canton appoints, in each Industrial-School District, (of which there are eleven in the Canton) a Supervising Principal, upon whom shall devolve the duty of instructing, training, and professionally perfecting, female teachers for industrial schools.

To accomplish this the Supervising Principals will give the requisite *regular* and *review* Normal courses of instruction, will regularly visit the industrial schools in each district, attend their examinations and also conduct the Normal examinations of candidates for teacherships ordered by the District School Board.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

The course of instruction comprises two divisions: *Regular* and *Review*, to be held in each District once in four years or oftener if required.

The object of the *regular* course is to enable girls intellectually, morally, and as to temperament, qualified to enter upon the profession of teaching, (provided at the same time they are possessed of the requisite preliminary technical skill,) to become theoretically and practically accomplished instructors in industrial schools.

The *Review* course is designed to perfect the knowledge, skill, and methods of instruction, of teachers already engaged in industrial schools.

Both courses must, therefore, be of a scientific, technical, and methodically-instructive character.

The District School Board will provide a well-lighted, spacious and in every respect suitable and properly-furnished school-room.

The regular Normal course lasts twenty weeks, continuing from the first of May to the end of September, and embraces weekly, twenty-five hours of instruction.

In affixing the hours of instruction, due regard will be had to interfere as little as possible with the established hours of instruction in the Public Schools.

With a view to secure to attendants of the regular course, not only the requisite skill and deftness in work suited to the female sex, but also to enable them, to pass creditably the examination provided for in the line of intellectual, pedagogical, and didactical acquirements, there shall, in addition to the instructions in handiwork, also be taught certain applied sciences, more especially the methods of instruction and the practical training of children.

Of the hours of tuition, three-fifths are to be devoted to handiwork or technical instruction, and two-fifths to scientific studies. Whilst knitting, however, the exercise of reading aloud professionally instructive essays may be introduced.

The handiwork taught in the regular course is divided into *plain* and *fancy*.

The *plain* work has precedence, and accordingly receives attention first; it embraces:

A. Knitting,
B. Sewing,
C. Marking,
D. Mending,
E. Spinning,
F. Cutting and Fitting,

The *fancy* work which follows, embraces:

A. Netting,
B. Embroidery,
C. Fancy Knitting,
D. Crochet Work.

The above order of succession is sirictly to be followed when instruction in the several branches is taken up, and great care is to be exercised that the student is kept well in practice in all preceding branches of handiwork before a successive one is attempted.

KNITTING.

In the knitting-classes the carriage of the body, the movement of the arms, hands, and fingers, must receive special attention; then, the peculiarities and prices of the various kinds of material used and also the character, patterns, and utility of the articles made. The defects and mistakes made in the art of knitting should be clearly shown, and the important uses to which knitting can be put to in the manufacture of stockings, gloves, shawls, children's wear, under-clothing, and articles of dress should be forcibly brought to the notice of scholars. Finally, they should be encouraged to supplant sundry fancy articles with knitting work.

SEWING.

In sewing also, the position of the body and its movements must be shown and closely observed, the various appliances and their proper use explained; the varieties of thread, the deficiencies and defects of sewing, the different qualities of plain and colored cotton goods clearly indicated and the application of various stitches, seams, and hems, thoroughly taught. Finally, all sewing requisite on shirts and chemises of various qualities of material, and from infant- to adult-wear must receive, in regular order, close attention and ample practice.

MARKING.

Marking shall be confined to the cross-stitch, and applied only upon house-linen and similar articles.

Each scholar will prepare for himself patterns of the French and Latin Capital letters, and also a complete set of numerals.

MENDING.

In treating of the art of mending, the attention of the scholar shall be called more especially to the economic value of this important work in the household, and so far as possible inculcate in each pupil a special love for this branch of domestic industry.

There shall be carefully explained to the scholars, and they must be thoroughly taught the repairing of woven goods by means of darning, how to insert and put patches cleverly on plain and colored cotton and linen goods, and also how to mend knit articles by darning and reknitting.

Whilst attaining expertness in mending, the requisite knowledge of the material used, and best adapted for this purpose, together with its proper application, must be imparted.

SPINNING.

In localities where it is desirable to instruct in the art of spinning, the same will be taught in like thorough manner, including also a full knowledge of the appliances required, their construction, etc., and of the different kinds of material used, together with the various processes of conversion from the raw state.

CUTTING AND FITTING.

The instruction of cutting and fitting shall commence with the simplest articles, and gradually extend to the more difficult until, in addition to other under-clothing, the cutting out of shirts and chemises can be taken in hand and successfully accomplished.

At each stage of instruction, explanatory remarks upon the relative effects of measurements shall be introduced and directions given how to economize material.

At first in cutting, paper patterns are tó be used, thereafter cutting off-hand from direct measurement paper patterns, and finally the actual stuff must be cut out by the scholar herself.

Every scholar is required to prepare for herself a complete set of all measurements used for the various articles of wearing apparel made. The Supervising Principals will provide themselves with as complete a set of sample patterns as possible.

FANCY WORK.

Instruction in fancy work shall be restricted to the simpler kinds, requiring the most inexpensive material, usefulness rather than ornamentation being the primary object. It is all important that the scholars be taught to avoid a conceited, tasteless, frivolous and unbecoming style of dressing, and in place thereof, inculcate a taste for the simple, modest, respectable, and really becoming rural style in vogue among sensible citizens.

The proper preservation of all material used during the course of instruction shall be indicated at the proper time.

Toward the close of course, the Supervising Principal shall, in conjunction with the scholars, prepare a complete course of studies for the industrial schools established by law, which course shall, as its basis, have the following class system:

1st class—Knitting,
2nd class—Sewing and Marking,
3rd class—Knitting, Sewing, Marking, Mending, and Spinning,
4th class—Knitting, Mending, Spinning, Cutting-out, and Fitting.

The scholars shall be made thoroughly conversant with the didactic succession of the work and the methods employed in teaching the same, so that they shall have a clear and well-defined conception of the responsible duty devolving upon them in the future as teachers of industries, and have an assured consciousness of how to acquit themselves creditably as such.

Of course, in presenting specifically the manual phase of industrial education, Science shall not be neglected, and its faculty of enlightening introduced to the full extent possible, so that intelligence may, in every conceivable way, facilitate the acquisition of manual skill.

The technical instruction shall primarily be directed to attain, intelligently, the essential acquirements in the family of an unostentatious and useful citizen, avoiding every thing tending to luxury and vanity.

Under no circumstances must a scholar be permitted to undertake to do fancy work until she shall have acquired a complete mastery of the plain branches.

As these Normal courses of instruction are not intended to produce merely professional seamstresses, it will be essential that apart from being able to *do* skilfully the work, the scholars should also *understand* and *know* the principles underlying it, so that as teachers, they may be able to impart to pupils not only a certain kind of expertness, but by methodical processes in attaining skill and clear statements, they may impress upon them the *why* and *wherefore*, the basis and higher aims of work.

To the intellectual or scientific department of the Normal Course shall be devoted weekly, not less than two hours each:

1st to Reading, memorizing, and discussions upon the matter read and memorized.

2nd to Mental and Practical Arithmetic.

3rd to Penmanship, Orthography, and Composition.

4th to Readings and discussions upon educational methods from text-books, to be determined upon by the School Board.

5th to the Art of housekeeping and keeping family account-books.

In all ten hours weekly.

Scholars shall receive special drilling in contemplative and descriptive letter-writing, in recitals, and also in the forms and the manner of rendering official reports.

In communications and arguments bearing upon the science of instruction, it is desirable that the subjects follow in systematic order, be stated in plain, terse language, and afford a clear insight into the treatment and care of pupils; among other things, show the relations which should properly exist between teacher and pupil, indicate how to conduct the exercises of a school and exact discipline—treat the question of reward and punishment, give positive ideas as to what the conduct of children toward each other in and out of school hours should be, and more especially imbue pupils with industrious habits, activity in the performance of uses, love of order and cleanliness, simplicity and womanly decorum.

In the art of housekeeping the aim shall be to impart a knowledge to the scholars of the more important household duties of women, such as relate to nourishment, wearing apparel, laundry work, house-cleaning, nursing the sick, of the requisites and conveniences of home life, and also some directions in regard to the raising of vegetables and cultivation of flowers. Furthermore, also to implant in the scholar as to household duties, habits of order, cleanliness, neatness, simplicity, and economy, and impress the idea that these constitute essential qualities in every thoughtful housekeeper. The proper keeping of a family account-book, will largely aid in establishing habits of order and economy.

Normal Industrial Schools are limited to 30 scholars each. Applicants for admission must have attained the age of seventeen years, have a creditable discharge from school, be unmarried and possessed of requisite intellectual acquirements, and in addition thereto, give evidence of some degree of proficiency in female handiwork. Young ladies who desire to attend such a Normal course, are received on *one month's trial*, and upon report then of the Supervising Principal, the School Board determines whether or not the candidate shall be accepted for the balance of the course or rejected.

During this period of probation, in addition to the intellectual status of a candidate, special attention shall be given to observing whether the characteristics of temperaments will warrant her being encouraged to become a teacher.

NORMAL EXAMINATIONS.

At the close of the course, assisted by a special Board of four Supervisors, consisting of ladies best qualified to act as such, the course inspector superintends an examination of candidates for certificates, declaring them qualified to teach industrial schools.

Upon the report of this special Board in connection with that of the Supervising Principal, the District School Board awards certificates of qualifications for terms of *two*, *four*, and *six* years' teaching, being equivalent to the school grades of like numbers.

Scholars having attained certificates for only a two or four years' term, equivalent to the first four grades, are required to attend the *Review* course next following, at the close of which they are subjected anew to examination, and if then no advance is attained, her ability as a teacher ceases at the expiration of the term attained at the close of the regular course.

THE PUBLIC INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

In each industrial-school district the Supervising Principal in these schools has associated with her a Board of Supervisors, composed of ladies whose duty it is to exercise general Supervision over the manner in which the schools are conducted, insist on having the proper authorities remove objectionable features, and in every possible way exert themselves to increase the efficiency of the schools.

The Supervising Principal is required from time to time to visit and carefully inspect the industrial schools of the District, devoting to each ample time, in order that she may perfectly familiarize herself with the methods used by the respective teachers in imparting instruction, satisfying herself as to the standing of each school, ascertain what facilities, if any, the school-rooms are deficient in, notice also the frequency of visits and activity of coöperation on the part of the members of the local board of Supervisors, and render such advice to the teachers as shall tend to promote the efficiency of the schools.

At the annual examinations, all completed work of the pupils, not previously utilized, shall have the maker's name attached and be exhibited. At the same time, also, the journal or daily memoranda of progress made, and manual labor performed by each pupil, together with a regular register as to attendance, application, conduct, etc., shall be open for inspection.

No work is allowed specially to be made for examinations.

The pupils will be thoroughly examined as to the manner of, and the reasons for so, performing the various branches of work taught them, and also be catechised as to the quality and value of material used, its proper preservation, etc.

At the conclusion of these examinations the Board of Supervisors, in connection with the Supervising Principal, will note *in* the industrial-school journal *of each* pupil, their opinion in regard to the work respectively exhibited.

The advanced classes will also be examined on various subjects, more especially appertaining to the art of housekeeping.

Pupils, whose parents are able to do so, must furnish the material required in the industrial schools at their own expense, but where unable to do so, the teacher is authorized to supply the same at the expense of the Cantonal authorities.

TEACHERS' CONFERENCES.

With a view to effect a mutually-advantageous interchange of ideas, and experiences the Supervising Principal, is to encourage, more especially during the summer months Conferences of teachers of industrial schools, and the formation of District Teachers' Associations, of which the Supervising Principal of each district shall be the presiding officer and corresponding secretary.

Each District-Industrial-School Association for the purpose of promoting its object, shall adopt suitable regulations, and apply the proceeds of fines and incomes to the purchase and extension of a *Teachers' circulating library*, to consist of works calculated to promote the end in view. The Cantonal treasury will annually, on its part, contribute to each industrial school-district-association library, twenty francs.

Eligible for the position of Supervising Principal, is any lady in good health, possessing the requisite moral qualities, pedagogical and intellectual attainments, together with practical skill in the industries taught, and having family relations not calculated to interfere with the performance of her duties.

A special board of examiners composed of two ladies and the director of the Cantonal Seminary will be convened to determine upon applications for the position of Supervising Principal, and this Board shall give special attention to the pedagogical and didactic knowledge and views of the candidates, and lay equal stress upon evidences of a thorough understanding of the household economy of an unostentatious rural family life.

Upon the report of this Board, the Cantonal director of education, when a vacancy occurs, appoints the Supervising Principal for a term of *four* years, at the expiration of which, upon first having secured the approval of the respective District School Board, the appointment is confirmed for *another term of four years*, otherwise the position is declared vacant, and candidates invited to present themselves for examination.

In conclusion, it may not be inappropriate to add a few items of general interest in regard to the industrial or working schools of the Canton of Aargau:

Attendance is obligatory upon all girls from the period of completing their tenth year up to the fourteenth year inclusive.

In towns, eight hours weekly throughout the entire school year, and in rural districts, during winter, two to four hours every week are devoted exclusively to industrial schools.

In the year 1879 there were eleven industrial-school districts in the Canton of Aargau, containing in all, 298 industrial schools, with 288 regular teachers, and attended by 13,131 pupils. The salaries paid to the teachers of these school aggregating 64,460 francs, or about $13,000.

In another Canton (Berne) where it is obligatory for girls to attend industrial schools, there are 1607 such institutions with a corps of 1503 teachers, and an attendance of 46,487 pupils, whilst in the whole of Switzerland there exist upward of 3,000 such industrial schools.

ALBERT P. MARBLE, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Worcester, Mass., read the following paper on

THE UNATTAINABLE IN PUBLIC-SCHOOL EDUCATION.

THE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

Have we in this country a school system? Yes, and no.

As to the yes.

From the year 1636, only sixteen years after the landing of the Mayflower at Plymouth (when that £400 was appropriated to set up "ye university at Cambridge,") till the present day, schools have been maintained in the United States by the people and for the people. As new territories have been settled and new States formed, following the example of the older States they have established public schools. Between the old States and the new there is this difference:—That in the old the schools are the outgrowth of the customs, the development, the civilization, of two centuries, more or less; they are rooted in the conservatism of long-established usage; they have grown up with society and become a part of it. The new government which our fathers set up, the freedom which the reclaiming of a continent from wild nature gave birth to, the necessities of poverty, the contests with savage Indians and with European oppression,—all this has been wrought into the warp and woof of the public schools of the older States. The *raison d'etre* for what we find in our schools is rooted in their history. There is a conservatism about them. The good rests upon foundations, broad, deep, and not to be shaken. What is bad in them clings the faster by reason of this conservatism.

In the new States the case is somewhat different. They have grown rapidly;—not with raising corn among rocks; not, for the most part, with an axe in one hand to fell the forest, and with a gun in the other to fell an Indian; not fishing on a stormy coast, nor climbing barren hillsides, in the breath of the chilly north, to wrest from the unwilling soil a scanty subsistence; not with a foreign power falsely claiming to be paternal, to take unbidden their small earnings for the purposes of European wars; and not hampered with traditional notions of "grace of God" government for the aggrandizement of princes, regardless of the welfare of the people. These new States have grown under a free government; they have been founded by men used to freedom and trained in the public schools; they have spread over broad and fertile prairies, under genial skies, with rapid transportation, loosed from the bonds of old customs, free to adopt the newest or the oldest, and the best. Their schools, then, embody very largely the best features of those in the older States.

Public schools are universal. There is a system to every existing thing. To find out what the American school system is, we must examine it in all its parts, and thus deduce the laws of its being. A *résumé* of the system was prepared, a few years ago, under the auspices of this Association, and printed by the Bureau of Education at Washington. That system is still further seen in the report of a committee to this meeting prepared by Hon. J. H. SMART of Indianapolis. In this sense then, there is a public-school system. It is what the people in the various localities make it. It is the aggregate of the units that compose it. These units are the individual schools, established and maintained by the people, who are sovereign.

In this sense only have we a governmental system. Of our government, the political unit is the town meeting, a pure democracy, made up of individual men;—not a State, not a dynasty, not a crown, not a president, first term, second term, or third term. What our government was, or is, or is to be, is determined by the people. It was "we the people" who made the constitution, and defended it when it was in peril. And by the same token the constitution is to be perpetuated. The same is true of the schools—the school system if you please.

As to the no.

In a certain sense we have no governmental system. We have no crown with hereditary prerogatives; no lords; no orders of superior and inferior nobility; no aristocratic privileges; no fiefs; no feuds; no serfs; no laboring "class"; no slaves, thank God! no men who are not free to be anything which nature has fitted them to become.

In the same sense we have as a nation no religious system. Christianity there is, civilization there is. But we have no system of civilization, and no system of christianity or religion. There is no Protector of the Faith as in England; no United-States Pope; no cardinals, no archbishops, nor bishops, priests, and inferior clergy. In this sense there is no educational system. Gen. EATON is not educationally, pope; and Dr. RUFFNER, Dr. WICKERSHAM, Dr. DICKINSON are not educationally cardinals. Mr. HARRIS, Mr. RICKOFF, and Mr. PHILBRICK are not archbishops; nor are the rest bishops, priests, and inferior clergy. The Commissioner of Education does not speak with authority, like the general of the army; and even the general exercises a power only temporarily conferred upon him by the representatives of the people. Dr. RUFFNER and Col. ORR—noble men! we join hands with you in our common cause all the more heartily after the late unpleasantness—you do not speak to Virginia and to Georgia from a throne of official power, but with the force of great, generous hearts, intent upon raising in intelligence and virtue the whole people of your States. And Mr. Secretary DICKINSON does no "civilized bulldozing," educationally, in Massachusetts.

In France that young republic, at this time of writing, with the traditions of an old empire, they have a system of education, let down from above, and projected over the whole nation, as I understand it; with a minister, prefects, and subordinates, in departments, arrondissements, cantons, and communes. I have yet to learn that the mass of the people are more intelligent in France than in the United States. In England the

Minister of Instruction is a cabinet officer, with a wig and a gown, no doubt, and with countless governmental subordinates, all the way down to janitors. They have examinations often enough to secure endless cramming, and probably too little wholesome mental growth. They have a system. But it is generally believed that the common people, the farm laborers and the factory operatives, are not better taught than in the United States.

In the latter sense, fortunately, we have no system. Such a system does not accord with the genius of our institutions. We do not have it in church or in State. We do not want it in schools. In the former sense we have a system. It has imperfections. It has drawbacks. There are poor teachers. There are poor schools. But they are growing better; —and there is no iron-clad system to keep them down. No autocratic ukase, no ecclesiastical bull, no educational syllabus, can hinder such a training for American youth, as the good sense of the people may see to be the best. The Bureau at Washington collects and disseminates information about those methods of teaching which have proved most useful. And we, the people, can receive the judgments of Mr. HARRIS or Mr. DICKINSON for their inherent merits, and not have them foisted upon us by official power. Such is the American System of Public Schools.

PUBLIC INTEREST IN SCHOOLS.

These schools have been the centre of special interest of late. They are the subject of debate for statesmen, the theme for orators and writers; and politicians in more places than one wrangle about schools. This is proper; for the schools are second to no single public interest. In them is the future of the country.

But in these discussions the proper sphere of the schools is not always kept in mind. Important as they are, they are not everything. They may and they should train children well; but they can not take the place of parental care; they can never regulate the price of wheat or of stocks; they can not at once fix the balance of trade; public schools can not immediately bring on the millennium.

That most consummate American *orator, in discussing public affairs, was heard to say that the schools of the north saved the country in the late war. The very next day, in discussing some school question, he remarked that our public schools are an utter failure—or words to that effect. Neither statement was wholly true; and neither is entirely false. A consummate orator must not be too particular about his facts. His object is to persuade. Hence no first-rate orator is a safe counsellor. The suggestion of failure seemed plausible, because the orator was arguing in favor of industrial education as an "annex" to the public schools. He assumed that schools ought to teach the trades. That is not at all what schools are for. In that field they would inevitably be a failure. They will fail in whatever they attempt outside of their appropriate sphere. That sphere is to supplement, not to usurp the place of the home, the church, and the influences of civilized society; to put the child in possession of his faculties; to develop his manhood; and if possible to give

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* Wendell Phillips.

him a little start towards intellectual culture;—not to teach him a trade, but to leave him better fitted to learn any trade; not to stuff him with knowledge, but to stimulate his thirst for knowledge, and to put him in the way of getting it for himself.

In this great work there are certain barriers which can not be passed; there are heights which can never be reached; and there is a limit to the resources at command. It is the part of genius to estimate carefully its own powers; to see what is impossible; and to do all that can be done with the means at hand. This should be done for the public schools.

METES AND BOUNDS.

First. It is impossible to find or to secure identity of talent among children. Of fifty pupils in a school, no two are alike, though of course they have much in common. If two seem to be alike they will not long remain so. I once heard a lecture on "What the child knows at five years of age." It may be possible to tell something of what one child knows at that age, as you might count the hairs of his head. The summary would suit no other child. We often assume that the children know less than they do, and thus fail to interest them. We as often assume that they know more than they do, and fail just as badly. Our fifty children are unlike, each to the others, and all to any other fifty, who ever lived or who ever will live. Each one is the resultant of a set of influences never combined before and never to be combined again. The teacher in charge of them has before him a new revelation from the Almighty—fifty pages, each with countless lines—a new study; and he must meet this task without special preparation for it. He will find ample scope for all the resources he may have accumulated.

And the fifty neither can be, nor should they be, made alike—run in the same mould. Each may be taught the multiplication table, or the Greek verb, and in this one little particular they may be practically alike. But the multiplication table and the Greek verb, and all such mere knowledge is a very small part of education. Each child should develop his individuality as distinct as each separate tree in a forest. Hence universal marking and ranking of pupils is an impertinence, and an insult to the handiwork of God. It is nothing to any one of us that another person is something more or less than we. It is every thing to a child or a man that he make the most of himself. His duty ends there. The rest belongs to his ancestors and to the Creator. This dissimilarity is a fixed factor in all schools. No methods or principles of teaching, no philosophy, no superintendence, no experience can dispel it.

Second. It is practically impossible to place in every school a thoroughly-competent teacher. There is a philosophy of teaching. Certain principles and methods are known to be the best. By study, one may learn these; and by long experience he may really understand them, and become a superior teacher. Such persons are rare. Seven-eighths of the teachers are young women with but little preparation, who do not expect to stay. Many of the rest aim at some other business. This body changes every year. Just after one has learned the art he gives place to a raw recruit. This seems to be the order of nature in other fields also. Every person who brings up a family knows better how to do it afterwards, and when he has no further use for that knowledge. It is probable that parents learn full as much from their children as the children do from their parents. "A little child shall lead you" was written long ago. Children will continue to be reared by inexperienced mothers, and to be taught by young teachers. Something may be learned from the past and from others; but it will remain true that the American youth will be taught by teachers for the most part ignorant of the highest art, and lost to the profession soon after they begin to acquire it. The public are not yet alive to the difference between real teachers and mere makeshifts. They are not willing to pay for what the best would cost.

Third. The resources for maintaining schools are limited. A city with 10,000 pupils requires at least 200 teachers; fifty pupils are more than one person can properly train. Fifteen hundred dollars would not be too liberal pay for good common-school teachers. For salaries $300,000, and for other expenses $50,000 would be a moderate sum for the yearly training of 10,000 children. Instead of $350,000 we can scarcely count on $150,000 in such a case, and not even that except in favored places. There is indeed no more important interest than the training of children. In no way can more be done for the country than to leave a generation of intelligent and virtuous people to achieve its destiny. No heritage for one's children can equal a well-stored, well-trained, self-reliant mind. It would not be an unwise public outlay to provide a thoroughly-competent teacher for each 20 or 25 pupils; which would double the largest estimate above. But the fact remains that the resources of the public schools are limited. What is necessary in the way of money to make them ideally the best will not be provided. It is unattainable.

Fourth. We can not discover a method of good teaching that shall be "new." SOCRATES had the true art. By personal contact with the mind of his pupil, by planting his feet firmly on the reality of things, and by stimulating mental activity, he developed thought, mental activity, and moral power, or character. His gifted pupil, PLATO, was the child, the ripened fruitage of that teaching. And there is no better teaching now, after twenty-three centuries.

But SOCRATES's teaching was confined to a few; he did not keep a public school; and even he was murdered because he sought to emancipate the young from the shackles of a blind superstition, an ancient theology, and make them intellectually free—an indispensable condition of true progress. Our schools are public and for all; and in the changed conditions, and the new problems, systems, methods, courses of study, supervision, —there is a tendency to wholesale work, to machine-teaching, which is to be resisted. These aids, which can not be wholly dispensed with, are not merely useless, they are positively bad in so far as they prevent such real teaching as that of SOCRATES; they can never be so perfected as to take the place of real contact of the teacher with his pupil and personal interest in him—mind to mind, and soul to soul. As ELIJAH the prophet touched the dead body of the widow's son, warmed him with his warmth, and breathed into his nostrils his own breath to start him into new life, so must the live teacher put his mind to the child's mind, in order to stimulate the budding intelligence. That was the method of SOCRATES. It cannot be improved on.

One condition of all growth is activity. When therefore we are told that some plan should be devised by which scholars can be made without effort on their part, we are expected to work a miracle. The Socratic method requires work—even it may be the memorizing of dry paradigms. The multiplication table will not soon be improved upon. There is a limit to the "new" in teaching, which may not be safely passed.

Fifth. The best teaching does not always turn out good men. ALCIBIADES was a pupil of SOCRATES; but he was a profligate young man for all that. Even in CHRIST'S school there was JUDAS. The sermon on the mount is not the less a living power however, because it failed to reform JUDAS; and the fame of SOCRATES is not dimmed by the dissipation of ALCIBIADES. In like manner a school or a system of schools should not be condemned because some of the pupils turn out badly. To make every one perfect is not attainable.

Sixth. It is impossible to secure any thing like a symmetrical and thorough education for a majority of boys and girls, in the ten or twelve years they are in school, off and on. Broad culture requires not only time, but maturity; and this comes only with years and experience. To expect in pupils from the public schools, the mature judgment of men, and the ability to handle themselves in the best way, always, is like looking for ripe apples in June.

Seventh. The public schools can not determine the morals of the community. The influence of these schools should have a high moral tone. Every study well taught, begets a love of truth. There is morality in arithmetic if rightly used. Its inflexible rules, and the accuracy of its processes delight the mind as all unvarying truth does. The character, the daily example of the teacher is a moral power. The influence of public schools is highly moral.

But a child is in school only a part of the day. Great as the influence of the teacher may be, the home influence is greater. The street and society have a powerful influence upon young minds. These, the school can but partly resist. Other causes besides school must share largely in the credit or the discredit of a community's morality.

Eighth. The public schools can never turn out artists or artisans. Their object is elementary training, such as will be useful in any pursuit, and not the fitting for a particular pursuit. To do this well is all they can do. If the day comes when in the public schools there shall be a forge in one corner, a carpenter's bench in another, a shoemaker's in another, and a tailor's table at one side, then the schools will be poorer than now and the trades will be worse off. These things can not be done in school; the pretense of doing them will be a sham; a boy may like to play with a plane, but he knows that he is not doing the real work of a carpenter. This is illustrated in the business colleges where they have sham banks, sham business transactions, sham money—It all leads to sham morality.

What is learned in school does fit boys and girls for active life. I deny the assertion that it does not. Christianity is also learned in the public schools. Suppose some one says that the schools make heathens. Shall we therefore introduce the Passion Play of Ober-Ammergau to make christians? It would be very much like bringing in the bench to train up carpenters.

Moreover the experiment of trades in connection with schools has been tried and exploded long ago. Any one who will examine the subject will find the case well stated in a paper entitled Handikraft in School, by Dr. C. O. THOMPSON of the Technical School at Worcester, Mass. Special Industrial Schools are necessary, and they should be multiplied. To annex special training for the trades upon the public-school system, is to court failure in the proper sphere of those schools, and to fail utterly in the thing sought.

Ninth. Teachers, eminent scholars, and many friends of education are wasting much valuable strength, it seems to me, in trying to do what can not be done. I beg everybody's pardon who doesn't agree with me. But I venture to say that the Spelling Reform will never be accomplished except by slow degrees. A long list of illustrious names give countenance to this "reform." If they will make haste slowly, one word a year, in some 50,000 years the spelling of English may be reformed. The result in the next hundred years will be to make confusion worse confounded. The fact is, a good many people spell; and they will not be led by the long list of illustrious names. NOAH WEBSTER tried that. No language was ever made over—revamped. A language changes by slow degrees, never by Act of Parliament.

A good deal of time is wasted in the attempt to find out how CICERO pronounced his name. The Roman or "new" pronunciation of Latin may be amusing to those who have the time for it. There is better work for schools. With every word of French ever written before you, could you learn to pronounce French without hearing it? Could a New Zealander pronounce English from books only? Is it probable that Latin was pronounced at all times alike? To put the case as I once heard it: If CICERO were to be "materialized" and stay here long enough to learn all the English literature thoroughly, besides studying Latin long enough to pass the Harvard examinations, which he could not do without a good deal of study; and if, not speaking a word, he were to write out fully how to pronounce Latin, even then we could not learn from such a treatise how to speak the language intelligibly to him, any more than we can learn in that way to speak French. But suppose we could pronounce as CICERO pronounced; it would still be better to follow the analogy of our own language, as other nations do, for the sake of the comparison of Latin with English words.

The Metric System is very simple. Its introduction at once would be a great saving of time and money. But it will not at once be introduced. How was it with the decimal system of money? It was just a century before four-pence-ha'-pennies and nine-pences disappeared from general circulation; and then they would not have disappeared but for the war. To apply the decimal system to these reforms: The Metric System will not become general in less than 100 years; the Reformed Spelling in 1000 years; and the Roman pronunciation in 10,000;—and by that time we shall have telephonic or some other communication with CICERO himself.

Tenth. The public schools can never compete successfully with special schools. Phillips Academy fits for college. A boy goes there to live; he has no other business than school. The school attends to one thing. If the boy does not study he can not stay. Under thorough control of the school, he does the specific work. This particular work can not be so well done in a public high school. There, children are sent daily from home. They have other duties and other interests. They have the society of neighbors to occupy, partly, their mind. The school has other functions than mere fitting for college. This plan has its advantages; but in the one specific direction not so much can be done in a given time as in the special school.

In conclusion.

I have thus attempted to point out: That we have a school system which is democratic, so to speak, and not autocratic; That we can neither find nor make identity of talent in children; That we may not expect the highest skill in teachers; That our resources are limited; That there is very little which is "new" in the best teaching; That the best teaching does not insure a good product in every case; That a symmetrical education, worthy the name, can not be expected at the age of fifteen; That the public schools can not be responsible solely for the moral character of the community; That public schools can not turn out artisans, artists, or professional men; That much strength is wasted in vain attempts to do what is impossible; and That public schools can not compete with special schools.

These are a few of the limitations in respect of public schools, imperfectly set forth. Others will suggest themselves to every reflecting mind. It has seemed useful to point out these limitations, because, first: those in charge may fail to secure what is within their reach in the attempt to get what is beyond reach; and second: because the schools are often criticized for what lies beyond their province.

Let us consider for a moment some of the criticisms of the public schools; for I suspect they are not groundless. A keen observer will not fail to see that American youth of the present day frequently lack something which former generations had;—industry, frugality, self-denial, self-support. In early days families were large. From the age of ten on, the boy, and the girl too, earned their own living. In these days, often, the boy and the girl are supported till the age of eighteen or twenty-one, and then they feel abused and ill-treated if not set up in business with capital. In many cases they manifest no disposition to care for themselves; and the fault is laid to the schools. The education is thought to be defective; and it is defective. Let us see whether the schools alone ought to cure the defect.

Formerly the simplicity of rural life, the struggle for a livelihood with the forces of nature in the open field, and the habits of society, made a place for a boy's work and a girl's work. They could be useful in many ways. People did not expect to give them the best fare nor the best clothes. They were sent to bed early, where they had a chance to grow strong. They were boys till twenty-one, and girls till eighteen. They had to obey their parents. They had to do for themselves. It was best for them. They became sturdy and strong.

In the present urban life, a life that is not confined to the city at all but extends to the remotest hamlet, by railroads, telegraphs, daily papers, the case is reversed. The business of the parents in the complex machinery of society makes no place for the child's work. In the shops there is minute division of labor. On the farm machinery takes the place of hand tools. The mowing-machine sweeps away the scythe; horse power supplants men's muscles; and in the larger operations steam blows away horses. The hand flail is a thing of the past. In the kitchen there is the same transformation. The spinning-wheel has spun its last thread. No busy loom employs the housewife. Even the cooking is largely done by proxy; and foreign Bridgets step in, where mothers and daughters once dignified work.

These improvements of modern life may be on the whole real improvements. But industry, thrift, and frugality seem to have gone out with the old ways. Is there some way to bring these back without the drudgery?

Furthurmore, luxury creeps in. Men look back upon the privations of their early life; and they forget that these very privations were the making of their manhood. Their natural affection for their children prompts them to shield those children from hardship; and they do not realize that in the very lavishness of their provisions, they do harm rather than good to their offspring; while the children of the poor, and foreigners, come in to do the work and reap the reward of labor, the reward that money can not buy. These parents, engrossed with their own business and cares, feed and cloth their children, deny them the discipline of work, and send them to school in the vain hope that the school will supply what they weakly neglect to give. This pampering of youthful appetite, this timid yielding to artificial wants, this fostering of inordinate desire to have without earning it, what other people have, is bringing on an age of luxury. The age of luxury preceded by only a few generations the downfall of Rome. Such an age when once fastened on us will lead to our ruin as a nation.

This tendency of American life is seen in impatience of restraint, in the chafing under wholesome discipline, in aversion to vigorous work at home or at school. Our feeble youth can not stand the pressure of sustained effort in any direction. Why are they thus restive and thus feeble? For the simple reason that they have not been subjected, all their lives, to anything which develops either muscle or intellectual fiber. A whole community can be wrought into ecstasy at the recital of what seems to them the terrible hardship of a boy exposed for a few moments to a June shower, or compelled to go a quarter of a mile to school in a snow-storm. Facing storms and braving the tempest is the very thing, both figuratively and literally, which children most need.

It is this very wishy-washy sentimentality, this timid shrinking, in the community, from the discipline of the disagreeable, which both causes the evil of indolence, inefficiency, and unthriftiness among the pupils who leave school, and then criticizes the schools because of the namby-pambyism which comes of itself.

If, now, I have made myself understood, the great evil of our society here pointed out, can not be cured by the schools alone. It is the duty of those schools boldly to confront the evil. They do so no doubt to a considerable extent. But the complete cure is to them one of the unattainable things. They must be reinforced by the parents, the whole community, society, rising as one man to instil into the minds of the young the wholesome lesson which all true men at some time must have learned: *That no man has any thing worth having which he has not earned.* All the rest he gets, is stolen, by what ever name he may call it.

For the schools:—their province is, by studies more or less, and by discipline which means continuous work, to develop mind and character; to put the child in possession of his faculties, and make him master of himself;—not to stuff him with knowledge, but to stimulate a desire to know, and to teach him how to learn; not to teach trades, but to develop the faculty to learn any trade. This is our province. We may pass the Rubicon and undertake all the rest; but if we do so, our empire will crumble and fall by its own weight.

If this subject is imperfectly set forth, it is because I can not do what Mr. PUCK proposed—put a girdle round the earth in forty minutes!—the time to which each essay is here limited.

Adjourned to meet July 14, at 9 A. M.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 14, 1880.

The Association was called to order at 9 o'clock. Prayer was offered by the Hon. B. G. NORTHROP, of Connecticut.

W. H. PAYNE, Professor of the Science of Education in the Michigan State University, at Ann Arbor, presented the following paper which, on account of illness, he requested Z. C. SPENCER, of Michigan, to read.

THE DOMAIN OF NATURE AND OF ART IN THE PROCESS OF INSTRUCTION.

The history of education reveals two phases of thought which are distinctively and radically different; and in most of our educational discussions that go down to principles, there is confusion and uncertainty caused by our failure to discriminate with clearness between these two conceptions. These two phases of thought are chronologically distinct, and thus mark two epochs in the history of education. Broadly speaking, we may say that the old education reached down to the Reformation, and that the new began with LUTHER; but we must bear in mind that one phase of thought does not replace another abruptly. Transition is one law of progress. The old fades into the new; the new replaces the old by insensible degrees: just as dawn passes into daylight, and daylight fades into twilight. The older conception of education was at its maximum in the middle ages. The later conception is apparently at its maximum in these days. The intervening period has been the scene of an almost unnoticed transition from the old to the new.

The progress of human opinion exhibits another marked and curious phenomenon: "The suppression of every error is commonly followed by a temporary ascendency of the contrary one." (SPENCER). Such are the limitations of our powers, that we almost unavoidably become the partisans of one phase of a many-sided truth, and thus allow another phase of it to be obscured and misinterpreted. It is inconceivable that the old education was wholly wrong in its philosophy, or that the new is wholly right. When PESTALOZZI declares that he has "turned the European car of education quite round and set it in a new direction," we may be sure that he has turned his back upon some truths that deserve recognition. It is much easier to be an extremist; than to exercise judicial fairness and candor; much more difficult to be an impartial judge, than to be an impassioned advocate.

The thought which underlies this discussion is that the old education, as well as the new, has a philosophy that is valid; that each is right in what it claims, and wrong in what it denies; and that a true conception of education will embrace the elements of truth that are embodied in these rival and antagonistic systems. In pursuing my discussion I shall not attempt to show the origin of what I think to be the fundamental difference betwen the old education and the new. This is a most important and interesting question in educational history, but the limits of my paper forbid any adequate treatment of it. I shall attempt only to show in what this contrast consists, and then to estimate the value of the truths underlying these two schools of educational thought and practice.

The thinker who did most to establish the new current in educational thought was ROUSSEAU. His EMILE is one long, impassioned protest against the education consecrated by tradition and dominant in the schools. The very first lines of the famous book that has done more than any other to mould human education, read thus:

> "Everything is good, as it comes from the hands of the Author of nature; everything degenerates in the hands of man. He forces one country to nourish the productions of another, one tree to bear the fruits of another; he mingles and confounds the climates, the elements, and the seasons; he mutilates his dog, his horse, and his slave; he overturns and disfigures everything; he loves deformity, monsters; he will have nothing as nature made it, not even man; man must be trained as a horse in a riding-school: he must be bent to his fancy, like a tree in his garden."

In these terms we have a formal indictment of art as employed in the process of education; and the whole book is a plea for that unimpeded spontaneity and liberty symbolized by the word *nature*. It was ROUSSEAU's belief that man had been spoiled by the arts of the politician, the priest, the teacher, and the tailor. His ideal man was the noble savage, nature's freeman, nature's child. From ROUSSEAU's lips first started that cry whose echoes are still heard on every platform where education is discussed. "Nature! Nature! Follow Nature!"

The conception that underlies the *old* education is this: Man is a fallen being, and the highest resources of human art must be employed to raise him towards his original state of perfection. His natural impulses are evil and they must be checked, governed, and even destroyed. The natural, that is the spontaneous, is regarded with distrust as something necessarily bad, and education is a process by which nature is to be thwarted and the child saved. The law of conduct is obedience to authority; and the criterion of truth is the bare *dictum* of the wise. There could not be spots on the sun, because ARISTOTLE had declared that the sun was incorruptible. This phase of thought was only one of several cognate phases. States could be made prosperous and great by the *fiat* of kings; holiness was a victory gained over nature by mortifications and self-imposed tortures; disease was an enemy to be fought and subdued by lancet, blister, and drug.

The conception underlying the new education is, that at least within the historical period, man has been constantly rising in the scale of being by a process of spontaneous development or growth; that in themselves, his impulses are good, and that the greatest foe to human happiness and progress is artificial restraint; that a thing is good to the degree in which it is free from the taint of human art; and that education is at its best when it interferes the least with spontaneous growth. This phase of thought is also but one of several cognate phases: That country is governed best that is governed least, the highest function of legislation being to guarantee the right of non-interference. Virtue consists in right action, and right action is to be learned by experience. The child is not to shun fire through the admonitions of its parents; but is first to burn his fingers and then shun it. Thus HERBERT SPENCER says, "if it (*a child*) lays hold of the fire-bars, thrusts its fingers into a candle-flame, or spills boiling water on any part of its skin, the resulting burn or scald is a lesson not easily forgotten. So deep an impression is produced by one or two such events, that afterwards no persuasion will induce it again to disregard the laws of its constitution in these ways.

"Now in these and like cases, Nature illustrates to us in the simplest way, the true theory and practice of moral discipline." (*Education*, p. 173).

In the treatment of disease, the highest function of the physician is to secure to Nature, the right of non-interference. Even in cases where medical science might prolong the lives of the physically weak, it is better to let Nature have her course in securing "the survival of the fittest" by allowing the spontaneous process of elimination to go on unchecked. Nature has decreed that some must suffer and go to untimely graves; this is their misfortune. But the world will be better off without them; let them, therefore, suffer and die. Others are predetermined to long and happy lives. This is their good fortune. Let them enjoy it.

The contrast between these two modes of thought may be more concisely stated as follows: The old education was a process of manufacture; the new is a process of growth. The old constantly invokes the aid of art; the new as constantly the aid of nature. The old magnifies the office of the teacher and the text; the new reduces the office of the teacher to but little more than non-interference, and makes experimental knowledge the chief object of pursuit.

I have purposely stated these contrasts in their extreme form to the end that they may be sharply discriminated. That I have indulged in no exaggeration must be evident to all who have studied the works of the educational reformers, especially ROUSSEAU, MICHELET, and SPENCER.

Now the thesis I would maintain is this: *Education is neither the work of art alone nor of nature alone; but is a process based on nature and requiring the resources of human art in the way of supplement and direction.*

Under the domination of the development hypothesis, the existing system of things has been invested with the attributes of personality; and the divinities of the old mythology have been replaced by the goddess Nature, the all-wise, the infinitely-prudent, man's infallible guide. The apotheosis of the existing order of things is very noticeable in the writings of all the more ardent educational reformers. Even in the sober pages of JOSEPH PAYNE who has enriched our educatianal literature beyond almost any other writer of this century, we read as follows: "How, then, does Nature teach? She furnishes knowledge by object-lessons. * * * She teaches quietly. She does not continually interrupt her pupil, even when he blunders, by outcries and objurgations. * * * She does not anxiously intervene to prevent the consequences of his actions; she allows him to experience them, that he may learn prudence; sometimes even by letting him burn his fingers, that he may gain at once a significant lesson in physics, and also the moral lesson involved in the ministry of pain." (*Lectures on Education*, p. 31).

There are two grave objections to this personification of nature.

1. *It inculcates notions that are either exaggerated or false.* This fiction of personality is too puerile to save it from contempt. But passing this by, a little reflection will force us to deny both the benevolence and the infallibility of "Nature." In pestilence, in famine, in shipwreck, in conflagration, in jungle, and in morass, we behold the heartless doings of "Nature," that pattern so persistently pressed upon our attention for study and imitation. It is this same "Nature" that scalds the infant in boiling water, permits it to fall upon the pavement from the open window, or tears it from its mother's arms through infectious disease. In these aspects, as well as in many others, "Nature" is heartless, cruel, and even brutal. Educational writers of the evolutionist school conceive of humanity in gross as under the tutorship of "Nature;" and they think they have discovered the right law of education for the individual, when they have determined the course of natural training over which the race has passed in its instinctive march onwards. Thus SPENCER says, "The education of the child must accord, both in mode and arrangement, with the education of mankind as considered historically; or, in other words, the genesis of knowledge in the individual must follow the same course as the genesis of knowledge in the race." (*Education*, p. 122). The fatal objection to this doctrine is that it takes no account of the ameliorations that are introduced into life through human experience. The race has learned through experience that the salts of lead are poisonous; must each child, therefore, learn this lesson in the same way? If each man is to think out his sys-

tem of philosophy for himself, on what ground can MR. SPENCER excuse himself for writing so many volumes? The cave, the hut, the log cabin, the sealed house, indicate man's historical or "natural" laws of progress; is this law, therefore, binding on each individual of to-day? All the knowledge acquired by the race, has come through experience; must experience be the only source of knowledge to the individual? No course of action is binding on the individual, simply because it is "natural." No law of progress is valid that does not take account of the results of human experience. *Inheritance supplemented by individual gain*, seems to me a truer statement of the law of progress; and if "the genesis of knowledge in the race" is construed so as to admit the fact of inheritance, it is also a true expression for "the genesis of knowledge in the individual."

2. Another objection to this personification of nature is, that *it is in direct violation of the scientific method.* Such fictions, when employed in the serious pursuit of truth, mark a very rude stage of human culture. The giving of high sounding names to occult or unknown causes, and the ascription of intelligence, volition, and benevolence to mere things, and even to abstractions, are so many confessions of ignorance, and are even evidences of mere pretense to knowledge. "Nature abhors a vacuum" carries us back to the age of pretended science, to the period in which alchemy, and astrology and sorcery flourished; and the habitual use of such phrases as I just quoted from JOSEPH PAYNE, by nearly all the great writers on education from ROUSSEAU to SPENCER, is a melancholy proof that our method of dealing with educational doctrines is still unscientific and crude. He has not thought very seriously on these questions who has not discovered that there is much pure educational cant current among teachers and in our professional literature. Maxims, aphorisms and "principles," half true or wholly false, pass from mouth to mouth unchallenged, accepted on faith in mere authority. In the case before us, it is essential that we know just what is meant by the term "Nature" before we commit ourselves to the dogma of the new education, FOLLOW NATURE!

In its remarkable article on education, the *Encyclopĕdie Methodique* expresses its general doctrine of method thus: "There is a close analogy between the culture of plants and the education of children. In each case nature must supply the basis of operations." This seems to me to express the true relations between the two factors in education, nature and art. In the case of the plant, the laws of its growth are facts in that established system of things called nature. The plant is predetermined to grow, and the essential conditions of its growth are also predetermined; but the rate, quality, and form of growth may be modified, and, to a great degree, controlled, by human agency. The wild plum is a natural fruit; but the damson plum exhibits the modifying, almost re-creative power of human art. Unassisted nature is as powerless to produce a rareripe peach as to produce a chronometer. Every step in civilization is a victory gained by man over the brute forces of nature. The Scripture is right when it says that man's mission on earth is to subdue it. Here is a garden filled with objects fit to sustain man's life, and to minister to his enjoyment; but withdraw from it, only for a few years, the controlling and re-creative influence of human art, and it becomes an unsightly thicket, worse than worthless. In returning to "the state of nature," it has gone from good to bad. Nature gives us a block of marble, but human art transforms it into a statue. It is this transformation that gives to the stone its significance and its value. It is true of nearly every natural thing fit for human use, that its value depends upon the amount of human skill that has been employed in its transformation. In other words, the further it is removed from "the state of nature," the more valuable it becomes. ROUSSEAU's apothegm should be made to read thus: "Most things are raised in value by passing through man's hands; and the things of most value at once degenerate when they revert to nature."

Education, or human culture, has likewise its two phases; it is a complex process involving two distinct factors. So far as education is a growth, it is a *natural* process; but so far as this growth is controlled, directed and perfected by the interference of human skill, it is an *artificial* process. In proportion as man is removed from the transforming power of human art, and reverts to the state of nature, he suffers degradation; and that education is best in which the highest human skill has reacted most potently upon the processes of natural growth. The teacher does not play a negative part in the process of education; his active and determining influence is as positive and as manifest as that of the gardener or the chemist. I will speak of the active intervention of human art in one phase of the educating process,—teaching or instructing. The mind is a living organism having its predetermined modes of growth and action; but this growth may be controlled, modified and determined by the ministration of human art. All growth involves the transformation of aliment, and the quality of the growth will be determined in part by the quality of the aliment. Here is one source of the determining power of the teacher. He who selects a child's food, controls, to a great degree, the child's physical growth; and so he who determines the subjects on which the mind thinks also determines the products of thought. It is as wise to trust chance and inclination in a child's choice of food, as in his choice of what he shall read or study. In the matter of inclination, it is often necessary to follow the teacher rather than to follow nature.

With many, it is a favorite notion that study may be made as agreeable as play, and this has been made a criterion for testing the value of a school; but there is no device or art by which work can be transformed into play. The child's inclinations will undoubtly lead him to prefer dabbling in soft clay to poring over his sums in fractions. One is play and the other serious labor; but even the child must learn the lesson of toil, even at the sacrifice of his natural inclinations. I believe it is one of the highest duties of teacher and the parent to train the child into the habit of sacrificing his natural inclinations to duty.

Human art intervenes in the process of instruction at still another point. The teacher's first duty is selection; his second is mode of presentation. From much reflection on the causes of failure in the art of instruction, I am convinced that a very considerable part of the difficulty lies at this point. A child is *instructed*, when there is taking place in his mind an *in-building* of knowledge, or the disposition of knowledge in an organic, articulate form. As I interpret the teaching process, one phase of it consists in organizing a body of knowledge, and then inducing a reorganization of this identical body of knowledge in the mind of the pupil. In other words, the process of instruction is perfect in proportion as the mind of the pupil is brought into the same state as the mind of his teacher. If this is true, one condition of true teaching is the ability to present subjects of instruction in the form most fit for ready and secure apprehension.

In the third place, the determining power of the teacher may be employed in directing that organic function of the mind called thinking; he may not only determine the *kind* of subjects on which the mind shall act, and the *form* in which they shall be presented, but he may even guide the mind or its reactions upon the subjects that have been brought within the compass of its powers. A very simple illustration will show my meaning. There are many pupils who need to be taught how to solve this trivial problem: For $12.00, how many books can be bought at ⅔ of a dollar each? The solution of the problem may be wholly within the pupil's ability, yet his mental activities may need starting and guiding in this wise; For $12.00, how many books may be bought at $1.00 each? Then how many at ⅓ of a dollar each? How many at ⅔ of a dollar each?

It is on this ground that the Socratic method is of incomparable value. It not only excites the mind to active thinking, but it guides the very processes of thought. No method of instruction requires such consummate skill for its successful management. The topic of instruction must not only lie articulately defined in the teacher's mind, but he must have made an exact analysis of it, and must know the subtile mechanism of the thinking process.

The work of the teacher, like work of every other kind, involves the play of cause and effect. Between cause and effect there is an invisible nexus, and this nexus is law or uniformity of action. These uniformities are simple facts in the existing system of things (nature), and mark the great lines of activity over which human effort must pass. We follow nature when we act in the line of these uniformities, for the express purpose of bringing human beings nearer to the perfection of their nature. Thus to follow nature is itself an art; and to be highly successful in realizing the divine idea of man is the highest and most difficult of human arts.

This doctrine of the dual nature of the educating process has practical consequences of extreme importance. It furnishes a secure basis to normal instruction, raises the importance of the teaching art, makes possible a teaching profession, and reconciles long-established methods with common sense and universal experience. I will illustrate only the last particular.

At least in theory, it is unorthodox to present a new subject in its abstract form; for the dogma reads, "First the concrete, then the abstract." And why thus?" We must "follow Nature," and "Nature furnishes knowledge by object-lessons." But instruction is impossible except through the mediation of language, and the moment we employ language we begin to deal with abstractions. Every thought expressed in words is an abstraction, and language, even the simplest, is a very store-house of ready-made classifications which embody the net results of human experience. The instructor can not escape the use of the abstract if he would; he ought not if he could. Instruction in the concrete, and instruction in the abstract are both equally valid, because both are included under the same psychological law.

Akin to this is the notion that, because we speak before we read, therefore oral instruction is the typical method. As though oral instruction and instruction based on the written text, both involving the use of language, could belong to different categories! And yet, in the very face of this new discovery, men and women, and even children, continue to read!

The "natural" method of learning a new language is by some thought to be, first, speaking, then reading, and lastly grammar. I do not say that this is not a good way to teach a language; I here object only to the supposed *basis* of the method. The same mode of reasoning applied to the teaching of science would justify the establishment of chairs of astrology, alchemy, and even of sorcery in all our higher institutions of learning.

In the matter of instruction, we shall find a firm basis for our methods if we can intelligently answer this one question: How does the mind react upon the aliment presented to it for elaboration? The doctrine embodied in the answer to this question will endow us with what a Scotch educational writer happily calls "a discreet spirit of compromise" permitting us "to grasp new things by the hand while clinging to the skirts of things old."—[(*Wayside Thoughts*, THOMPSON).]

COL. FRANCIS W. PARKER, one of the Boston-School Supervisors, and formerly Superintendent of Instruction in the Public Schools of Quincy, Mass., said:—

"I meant to have a long and heavy paper ready for this occasion on 'The Unsearchable in Pedagogy; or, What no Fellow can find out about Teaching,' but I didn't have time to prepare it. There are some criticisms that are made on a certain experiment in education at Quincy that I want to notice, mainly to endorse. It is said, first, that there is nothing new in the Quincy method. No one has claimed that there is; at least, I put forward as the best argument for it that it is old. This experiment is the outcome of the experience of the last 100 years. It is indebted to all the great teachers and theorists of the past.

2. It is claimed I stole all my ideas. The thing I commend in that charge is that it is solid truth. I did steal—stole it all. I stole from Cleveland, Cincinnati, ARISTOTLE, PESTALOZZI, SPENCER, and everybody else I could find in possession of anything worth stealing. I am going to keep at it, and I advise all of you who are earnest teachers to steal—steal all you can; and then you will not get half enough for the famishing minds of children.

3. They say we have thrown out the text-books. That is not solid truth. It is absurd. We use more books than under any other system. We claim the teacher should be as useless, the children as useful as possible.

The richest fruitage of the past is the ability to move forward, and the essential condition of progress is freedom—freedom to grow and help others to grow. What superintendent is not hampered? The teacher who is looking out for a re-election can't advance. The principal with one eye on a book-publishing house can't carry his school forward. A teacher chained to examinations can't be free. Our great battle is for freedom—freedom from interference, freedom from methods—to have our own plans and carry them out. There are

1. Teachers who work after a pattern. They are artisans.

2. Teachers who follow an ideal created by their own minds. They are artists.

3. Cobblers who patch up the bad work of others.

How are we to become artists, instead of artisans or cobblers? By *thoughtful* experience. By studying every step of our work. Ask yourself constantly, 'Why did I do this?' 'How can I do it better?' 'How and where can I use the experience of others?'

Let the end be mind-development of yourself and pupils—the power to *see* and *think*. Whatever best develops the mind, that is the most practical education. You have 1. The thing to be taught, and 2. The mind to be taught. Know both of these and method will take care of itself. Methods alone are doing incalculable evil.

God determined how the child's mind shall grow. All the teacher can do is to aid that growth. But you must have freedom to do this. Well, suppose your school committee stands in your path! Take your life in your hand and say, turn me out if you will, here I stand for children's rights. We are a servile set, thinking too much of our bread and butter.

A Superintendent who doesn't allow his teachers freedom is a nuisance and ought to be put out. A teacher who has no ideal, no lifting horizon is a nuisance. I say to my teachers, don't follow me—go your own way to work. Do a little well. But one thing I do demand. You shall *move.* Move on like poor Jo. Do nothing twice alike. Don't do things you have done before. If the child stood up before, have him sit down now. Whatever you do, do something different. Have no patterns. Uniformity is death—variety is life. If we all study the principles that underlie education and the child-nature we won't quarrel so much.

A story illustrates what is needed in all our schools. A young beau hired a horse to go courting. Before he got out of town the horse balked. He thrashed, and coaxed, and slashed to no avail. Crowd gathered and one after another tried his plan of starting the horse. At last an old sailor said, 'I can make that hoss go.' 'Do it,' said the driver. He gathered up a big handful of half-melted snow and clapped it into the horse's nose, clucked to him and away he went. 'Thar, I told you I could. All that hoss wanted was a *new sensation.*'

Give your scholars a new sensation and they'll go."

After a recess of a few minutes Miss GRACE C. BIBB, Professor of Pedagogics in the Missouri State University, at Columbia, read the following paper on

NORMAL DEPARTMENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES.

Our State Universities being established upon the educational covenant made prior to admission into the Union, between the States maintaining them and the Federal Government, and having their origin in the idea that "In a Republic ignorance is a crime," are not, as is at once evident, universities in the broadest sense of that term, but schools of high grade supported by the State for the education of its citizens. Their work is not one of charity; it is recognized to be of such necessity that its performance must be guaranteed before the territory applying for admission can be regarded as a safe member of the sisterhood of States. These universities, then, are established for a definite and very practical purpose, which ought never to be lost sight of in judging either their methods or their results. In the furtherance of their aim they must, of necessity, deal with knowledge in its application to human affairs rather than with the elaboration of knowledge into science, otherwise we should fail to enlist in their support the pioneers, at least, of our civilization. Whether in "process of the suns" the American State University shall lose that character of compromise by which it is now distinguished is doubtful, especially since the government maintaining it must itself continue to be a compromise so long as it is a republic: whether the term University be with any degree of correctness applied to these "Seminaries of Learning" as the Enabling Acts designate them is another matter whose discussion is of little moment, but it is of primary importance to remember that the first object of these institutions is that of giving, in connection with the common schools with which they are by the constitutions of most States directly associated, that general education through whose possession the youth of the State are enabled to avail themselves of the results of the thought and toil of all former times, and to bring themselves, as it were, into organic relation to that great world of which as individuals they form so infinitesimal a part. The American University adds to this general training to citizenship the opportunity of preparation for more immediate duties; hence arise the special schools of Law, Medicine, Agriculture, Pedagogics, and the like in which again and for the reasons already stated the practical applications of scientific investigation are of at least as much interest as are the investigations themselves.

As to the assumption by the university of the work of normal instruction, the right can hardly be successfully questioned. Whatever arguments have secured recognition to schools of Law or of Medicine, apply with equal force to the establishment of schools of Pedagogy when regarded merely from this stand-point, that they furnish the opportunity of professional education to persons who intend to become teachers; this is not, however, by any means the only stand-point from which they should be considered in their relation to a system of State education. Their true office is to train teachers for the higher places of the profession—for the superintendency, and for positions in the secondary schools as well as in the separate State Normal Schools; in doing this they exert a direct influence on the common schools to which they stand in organic relation and thus bring harmony into the entire system of State instruction.

The whole question of the right of the State to support higher education lies outside of the present discussion, being settled once for all, as has been already indicated, by the conditions under which those States to which lands for the support of "Seminaries of Learning" have been granted, were admitted into the Union. These conditions are that in consideration of the land grant made by the General Government the State so accepting *shall* maintain this seminary or university, as by common consent it has been called. Having entered into this covenant the States have plainly no right legal or moral to violate its terms, and however much, therefore, may be said for or against the right to establish other schools not contemplated in the original covenant has no bearing on the obligation under which the State Universities are maintained, nor can it affect any of their departments. It is, however, of some interest in this general connection to recall the fact that prior to the establishment of chairs of education in the Scotch Universities an opinion as to the feasibility of the project was asked from her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. One of these gentlemen, Mr. WILLIAM JOLLY, Inspector for Inverness, Nairn, and Elgin, in a report which forms part of the general report of the Committee of Council on Education (for 1874-5), says, of the demand for government support:—"The claim for assistance in founding educational chairs would seem to be fair and reasonable when we consider that similar assistance has been given to other chairs, but it would seem to become irresistible with the assumption by government of the central functions in national education." The view of the subject taken by Mr. JOLLY is evidently the correct one. Indeed that the education of its teachers is both the right and the duty of the State, even where not reaffirmed by covenant with the General Government, would seem too evident to need demonstration, and we might rest in fancied security upon this altogether justifiable inference, were it not that, even before the bar of public opinion as represented by the Legislature, the Normal School is still, in several States, biennially put upon its defence. Without attempting to discover for how much of this manifest antagonism Normal workers themselves may be indirectly responsible by reason of failure fully to recognize the fact that the Normal School must rest its entire claim to support upon its professional character or when this is recognized, through a neglect properly to inform the public with reference to the true aims of Normal instruction—let us consider briefly the American Normal School in its historical evolution. From such consideration it will at least appear that the best minds connected with our educational history have believed the professional training of the teacher a necessary condition of his highest usefulness, and have believed further that this professional training is the duty of the State.

We need hardly glance backward to find the origin of the Normal experiment in Germany in that class of twelve persons with whom FRANKE, in 1697, began the work which has led to the establishment of the Seminarium Præceptorum, and of the University Course of Lectures throughout United Germany, nor need we peer into the mist which shrouds the supposed school for teachers in France, of the ABBE DE LA SALLE, let us rather glance at that page of history which records our own Normal experiment. As early as 1816, we are told, Prof. OLMSTED, then young and a candidate for his Master's Degree, advocated the idea, for it was little more, of a school for the professional training of teachers; but the idea was only put into a form so tangible as to gain public attention in the series of letters written by Mr. JAMES G. CARTER on the general topic of Popular Education, and printed in the "Boston Patriot" during the winter of 1824—5. One of these letters in which Mr. CARTER presents what may be regarded as a working plan of the proposed Institution even in its details, manifests great practical good sense in its statement of what the suggested school may reasonably be expected to accomplish. The author says very moderately:—"It is not to be supposed for a moment, that *all* who may receive instruction at the proposed institution with the intention of becoming teachers will necessarily be made thereby adepts in the science any more than it is believed that *all* who happen to reside four years within the walls of a college are necessarily made expert in the mysteries of syllogisms and the calculus, but having seen correct general principles of education successfully reduced to practice, they may at least become artists in the profession and be able to teach pretty well upon a system the philosophy of which they can not thoroughly comprehend." Mr. CARTER's plan is said to have been favorably considered abroad as well as at home. In 1837 he drafted the bill under which a little later, the Legislature of Massachusetts established that Board of Education of which HORACE MANN was secretary, and of which Mr. CARTER was appointed by EDWARD EVERETT, then governor of the State, the first member. It was, as is well known, through the efforts of this Board, and by the assistance of EDWARD DWIGHT, that CYRUS PEIRCE was enabled to welcome at Lexington, on the third of July, 1839, the three pupils who constituted the first day's attendance of the first Normal School in America. As contributory to the result, however, a memorial addressed, in 1837, to the Legislature of Massachusetts, by the American Institute of Instruction, must not be overlooked, the memorialists praying that "Provision may be made for the better preparation of the teachers of the schools of the commonwealth," nor should we forget the letters published twelve years earlier in the "Connecticut Observer," a newspaper of Hartford. These letters, which were from the pen of the Rev. THOMAS GALLAUDET, favored the project of professional training for teachers and proposed methods of meeting anticipated difficulties. Their author says: "I am not so sanguine as to think that the whole mass of the community can at once be electrified as it were by any appeals however eloquent, or any efforts however strenuous, into one deep and universal excitement on this or any other subject.—Information must be gradually diffused; the feelings of influential men in various sections of the country must be enlisted; able writers in our public prints must engage their hearts and their pens in the cause." Let us note that these men believed, evidently, that an intelligent public would solve for itself the problem of Normal

Instruction were that problem but fairly stated; nor were they the only persons holding this view, for it is noticeable that beyond the Mississippi the year before the three prototypes of American Normal students met CYRUS PEIRCE at Lexington, Governor BOGGS of Missouri [as I learn from a published paper of SAMUEL S. LAWS, LL.D., President of the State University,] recommended, in his annual message to the Tenth General Assembly, that:—"The Seminary of Learning provided for in the land-grant of congress to the State on its admission to the Union, but as yet unorganized, be established with a department devoted to the education of teachers for common schools." The matter having been brought to the notice of successive Legislatures we find in 1848 President LATHROP of the University, which had meanwhile been formally opened, recommending "That some plan be devised to carry out the project of a law already submitted to the consideration of the Legislature, providing for the endowment in our university of a professorship of the theory and practice of teaching."

The history of this chair is of no little general interest as serving to dissipate a current delusion with reference to the importance attached by Missouri to the education of her citizens, since it shows her from the first working out her educational problems under the direction of men wise enough to grasp all the conditions of intellectual development. The history is however of particular interest to us in this discussion from the belief entertained that in Missouri originated the idea of associating the education of teachers directly with the university. This idea thus formulated was further urged in a memorial, probably prepared in large part by President LATHROP, and presented to the Fifteenth General Assembly by a committee of the Board of Curators. The memorialists after setting forth, very ably, some of the reasons for this association, say that:—"Admitting all that can be claimed for the Normal School"—there had been a proposition to establish separate Normal Schools—"your memorialists think that they cannot be deceived in the judgment which they have formed and which they do not hesitate to express, that every valuable result of the Normal School may be secured with a saving of the entire original outlay and the larger part of the annual expenditure, by the adoption of the plan which they have the honor to present to the General Assembly." Later, and with reference to the advantages likely to accrue to the prospective teacher from his professional training at the University they claim that: "By introducing the teacher during the period of his professional culture to the more liberal instructions of the University, and to the more varied action of mind on mind, * * * * * * they hazard nothing in the prediction, that as he goes out to his work with a juster view of the relations of the sciences to each other and to the arts, with a mind better balanced and better disciplined, and with a conscious ability and a disposition to make his instructions useful to the popular mind he will find * * * * the utility of his mission better appreciated and more cordially acknowledged, his social position fairly adjusted and his intellectual agency more cheerfully and amply rewarded." Our extended quotation from these official papers finds its justification in the fact that to these memorialists seems due whatever credit may attach to the origination of a plan for the association of Normal Departments with State Universities for which association they were certainly able to furnish abundant reasons. Their efforts together with those previously made led to the establishment, in 1857, of such a professorship as was indicated and indeed to an earlier provision for performing the work of the chair by its distribution among the other professorships. Missouri claims, therefore, to have originated the movement which has already led to the establishment of either Normal Departments proper, or of Chairs of Pedagogy in a number of institutions which are supported by the State for the higher education. The chairs now established include that of Didactics filled by Prof. FELLOWS at the University of Iowa, that of the University of Missouri whose history has been already given, and that of the University of Michigan, established in 1879, and of which Prof. PAYNE is the incumbent. The University of Wisconsin maintained a course of lectures in pedagogics from 1855 to 1868, and has had similar lectures in several succeeding years. The University of Indiana and Washington University have made arrangements for courses of lectures on Educational Science in 1880–81, and have engaged for them W. T. HARRIS, LL. D., of St. Louis. The University of Colorado makes some provision for the education of teachers, as does also the University of Oregon, the West-Virginia University, the State Industrial University of Arkansas, the University of Georgia, the University of Deseret, Utah, the University of Washington Territory, the University of North Carolina, and the University of Kansas. Illinois, as is well known, maintains her Normal University as a separate institution. In Florida, although the constitution of 1868 provides for the founding of a university with a department for teaching, the financial condition of the State has not as yet warranted the necessary expenditure. A long and interesting list of other institutions of collegiate rank having departments of education, but not, as I understand, dependent on State support, is omitted from this enumeration as not affecting the main idea of the present paper; for this list as well as for much other information with reference to the present condition of educational work I am indebted to reports, circulars, and personal letters from the Bureau of Education. Provision is now making for lectures in scientific pedagogy by the Universities of Minnesota and of Nebraska, as well as in connection with the projected University of Kentucky. The organization of the Normal work just alluded to differs widely in different institutions. In some cases, as in the University of Missouri, the department of Pedagogics is one of the professional schools, in other cases there are courses of lectures alone, in still others the Normal department seems to stand in no vital relation to the University, though associated with it in name. These differences are accounted for by the varying educational conditions of different localities, which conditions it is the province of the American University to meet as it best can. MATTHEW ARNOLD says that it is the function of the university to develop into science the knowledge a boy brings with him from the secondary school; he adds that the English Universities, though great and powerful schools, do not perform this function. It is indeed only in Germany that it is performed at all by the universities as a class. The

Scotch universities are quite as practical in their tendencies as are our own on which account the history of their establishment of Normal departments cannot be omitted from our present discussion. Even though it should present no new points of argument, it will at least serve to illustrate the subject by showing that to earnest men on both sides of the sea the same solution of a serious problem in education, has approved itself.

Mr. JOLLY, from whose official report I have already had occasion to quote, interprets on this wise the public sentiment: "In Scotland (also) it has come to be cordially recognized by most who have studied the subject that this professional training should be given in connection with our universities; that teachers should be educated professionally on the same platform and amidst the same elevating influences of culture as the other professions within our college walls; and that no other solution of the question will be worthy of the work and give the highest efficiency, status, and emoluments which should be cheerfully yielded by the country, to a profession in whose hands lies so much of the character, intelligence, and progress of the nation." Thus far Mr. JOLLY.

The genesis of the movement resulting in the professorships of the science of education at the universities of Edinburgh and St. Andrews may be briefly stated. The subject seems first to have been effectively discussed in an association of teachers and a memorial submitted to the Educational Institute of Scotland advocating professional training in the theory and practice of teaching in connection with our universities. The public press quite generally favoring the idea and it having received still further endorsement in the educational department of the Social-Science Congress, the Bell Trustees, in 1874, decided to offer £6000 to Edinburgh and £4000 to St. Andrews in order to found in these institutions chairs of Pedagogy. The only special duty imposed upon the universities by the acceptance of the gift was that of "expounding"—as Prof. LAURIE tells us in his Inaugural Address—"in the course of their prelections Bell's principles and system." It was with reference to the propriety of supplementing this gift by government aid in order that the chairs should be sufficiently endowed that the opinion of Her Majesty's Inspectors was asked; one of these opinions has already been quoted at considerable length. The action taken resulted in the establishment of chairs of education in the Universities of Edinburgh and St. Andrews, Prof. LAURIE being the incumbent of the first, Prof. MIKLEJOHN of the second. Aberdeen, though not maintaining a separate professorship, yet devotes attention to pedagogics, as is shown in the published work of Prof. BAIN. The course pursued by the Scotch Universities has affected also the status of professional education in England. In 1879 examinations in the theory and practice of teaching were established at the University of London, while in the same year, at a Teachers' Association, held at King's College, London, a resolution was passed making the establishment of chairs of education at the universities "one of the objects of the association." The College of Preceptors, London, undertakes the work of "preparing, examining, and certificating teachers," and a Teachers' Training Syndicate at Cambridge maintains a course of lectures on the science of education.

It does not appear that the association of chairs of Pedagogy with the German Universities ever occasioned much discussion—nor would it be likely that it should, since in Germany we find the true ideal university which can not be made amenable to the test of the immediate utility of its imparted knowledge. Germany, is of course, not at all dependent on the universities for her elementary schoolmasters, having seminaries for their education in large numbers. She has also, several Pedagogic Seminaries of high grade whose aim is to give the student special scientific and pedagogic comprehension of the subject he intends to teach; these schools are attended by persons who aspire to the higher places in Secondary and Superior Schools. There are, I believe, four of these institutions at Berlin, and others elsewhere. The German Universities maintaining courses of lectures on scientific pedagogy are those of Berlin, Bonn, Breslau, Erlangen, Freiburg, Giessen, Göttingen, Greifswald, Halle, Heidelberg, Jena, Kiel, Leipzig, Münster, Tübingen, Würzburg, Vienna, Berne, Basel, and Zürich. The hours given per week to the subject vary from eight at Leipzig to two at the Swiss Universities.

Our treatment of the subject thus far though dealing with it, in the main, from the historical stand-point, has perhaps sufficiently indicated the reasons for the maintenance of Normal Departments in connection with our State Universities; these reasons being forcibly stated in the several official documents from which quotation has been made. Yet the importance of the question under consideration leads us to the belief that a résumé of the claims of these departments to State support will not be injudicious since it is in Germany alone that these chairs have been established upon what we may here designate as the abstract principle of investigating for its own sake the Science of Education.

It should be premised that between the Normal Departments of Universities and such separate Normal Schools as may be founded by the State there can be no antagonism. The sphere of the former is to furnish, as has been once before stated, instructors for the Superior Schools, that of the latter to prepare teachers for the schools of lower grade,—for the elementary schools proper. Indeed so far as the separate Normal Schools are concerned more work than that which lies legitimately within their province as above indicated, can hardly be assumed under ordinary circumstances with a reasonable hope of its successful prosecution. Few States are satisfied with one Normal School and many Normal Schools still undertake much non-professional labor; the wisdom of this undertaking we need not here discuss; the fact remains to affect the conditions of Normal-School economy. Whether the separate Normal School assume the work of advanced academic instruction as such or use this instruction as the basis of professional training is not here a matter of much moment; in either case the school must meet present educational requirements, maintain a fully-equipped corps of special teachers at a cost approaching that of supporting the State University whose maintenance is required by the fundamental law. Even where the support of a university is not thus made obligatory it will just as much be the part of a wise economy and of a sound policy to concentrate the teaching force required for superior instruction the salaries of whose members being higher than those of more elementary teachers constitute an item of considerable expense to the State, and are the not infrequent occasion of complaint on the part of taxpayers and their representatives.

The question as to whether a person will not be a better elementary teacher for having university training is not pertinent to the present discussion which attempts rather to deal with things as they are and as they for some time must remain, than with theories however true when abstractly considered. A certain number of persons will engage in teaching either with or without special preparation, the separate Normal Schools attempt to reach this class and to improve the schools through them—to make them as teachers more worthy, intellectually and morally, of their high vocation; but, as a general rule, these are persons having neither the means, the leisure, nor the previous culture which will enable them to grasp all the conditions of the problem of education. To them pedagogy must be unfolded chiefly from the art side, and they must rather be put into possession of the results of experience than led to attempt the independent application of principles which they are for whatever reason incompetent to grasp. In a recognition of the special wants of this class of teachers is, doubtless, to be sought an explanation of the fact that scientific pedagogy has recently been almost wholly excluded from the curricula of the training seminaries for elementary teachers in Germany.

It is, however, only reasonable to anticipate that the university will be called upon to meet quite other intellectual conditions; for whatever elementary work *it* may do is assumed merely by reason of some temporary necessity. We may very properly expect to find in its students a degree of preparation, a facility, an intellectual penetration and grasp, a psychological knowledge which will enable them to study the Science of Education with a reasonable expectation of mastering its principles and perhaps of making therein independent investigations and generalizations. A special advantage is gained where students pursue their entire undergraduate course at the university itself in the breadth of culture thereby given as a basis for professional education. The association of Normal Departments with our universities then commends itself, not only on the score of economy in the teaching force of the State, but also on the ground of the increased advantages for culture offered to the student.

The professional school must from its necessary specialization of knowledge, be in its influence narrowing, and this the more decidedly, as it is the more removed from contact with different, if not antagonistic institutions. We must grow out of our profession as well as into it, if we are to make it most useful either to ourselves or to others. The true teacher with much of martyr's faith has seldom need to manifest that martyr's zeal which is apt, in our day, to be without knowledge. A wise tolerance of the views, even though dissentient, of others, a sympathetic capability of putting himself into the place of others, and of knowing as it were, through their consciousness, a power to recognize the good and the beautiful under whatever guise, a poetic, therefore, democratic sense of the dignity of man and of his infinite possibilities, a mind open to every influence of culture and satisfied with nothing less than the most perfect spiritual development—all these he ought to seek; all these, at least in a degree, and of the best teachers, the people may justly expect. These indeed are not the result of scholastic training alone wherever that training may be given, but they will the more certainly be promoted, as we have endeavored to show, if during his early years of culture the student be brought into contact with those diverse interests, by which the life of the University is characterized, if he be thrown into daily association with persons to whom the profession to him of paramount importance has little value when compared with their own and whose indifference or hostility to his pretensions teaches him at the same time judicious defence and becoming modesty. Breadth will be given to his views, also, if he find himself in an atmosphere where knowledge is sought for its own sake, as to a certain extent it is sought in every university, and if his own professional training be grafted on a liberal education and not made to stand therefor.

The University can also do much more than can the separate Normal School in the cultivation and direction of the power of independent thought, which is, after all, the most important intellectual endowment of the teacher, who must be able to change the form of his knowledge indefinitely in order successfully to adapt it to multiform capacities. This he can not do without entire apprehension of the subject of instruction in its relation to other knowledge and to the mind and without also an independent grasp of the thought and an independent power of dealing with its transformation.

We conclude then that the Normal Department of the University may, quite apart from its greater economy where the instruction of teachers for Superior Schools is concerned, advance strong claim to support by reason of the advantages which it offers for the training of the prospective teacher into habits of independent investigation and thought, as well as for that general grasp upon the world's stores of experience which constitutes a large part of what we call culture, We find further upon consideration of its history that it has been an outgrowth of the Normal idea at home as well as abroad, and that with every year, its representatives increase in number and in efficiency. An examination into the principles upon which the Normal Department is organized shows that its claim to State support is valid, while inquiry into its practical working encourages the belief that it is destined, through greater uniformity of aim and of organization to become a most potent factor in professional education, and we are fain to believe finally with Principal SHAIRP of St. Andrews, that, "In the endeavor to connect the training of teachers more closely with the Universities we have the intelligence of the country on our side."

EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 8 o'clock.

The Committee on Nominations reported the following list of names of officers for the ensuing year. The report was received and the persons named unanimously elected.

OFFICERS FOR 1880—81

President.—James H. Smart, of Indiana;
Secretary.—Wm. D. Henkle, of Ohio;
Treasurer.—Eli T. Tappan, of Ohio;
Vice-Presidents:—1. Gustavus J. Orr, of Georgia;
2. John W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts;
3. James Johonnot, of New York;
4. J. D. Pickett, of Kentucky;
5. Wm. T. Harris, of Missouri;
6. J. C. Gilchrist, of Iowa;
7. Edwin O. Vaile, of Illinois;
8. H. S. Jones, of Pennsylvania;
9. Israel W. Andrews, of Ohio;
10. J. R. Malone, of Texas;
11. Thos. Marcellus Marshall, of West Virgina;
12. Mrs. Louise Pollock, of the District of Columbia;
Counsellors.—John Eaton, Jr., of the District of Columbia, } At large;
J. Ormond Wilson, " " " " }
Merritt C. Fernald, of Maine;
Thos. W. Bicknell, of Massachusetts;
David N. Camp, of Connecticut;
Norman A. Calkins, of New York;
James McCosh, of New Jersey;
James P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania;
M. A. Newell, of Maryland;
Amy M. Bradley, of North Carolina;
Charles E. Lambdin, of Georgia;
Eugene R. Rivers, of Alabama;
Alex. Hogg, of Texas;
Will A. Cate, of Tennessee;
Thos. Marcellus Marshall, of West Virginia;
T. C. H. Vance, of Kentucky;
John B. Peaslee, of Ohio;
John S. Irwin, of Indiana;
John M. Gregory, of Illinois;
William H. Payne, of Michigan;
William W. Folwell, of Minnesota;
Louis Soldan, of Missouri;
Charles S. Young, of Nevada;
S. R. Thompson, of Nebraska;
Allen B. Lemmon, of Kansas;
Josiah L. Pickard, of Iowa;
Zalmon Richards, of the District of Columbia.

The President appointed Jerome Allen, W: D. Henkle, and G. J. Orr, a special committee to investigate the claims of the National Teachers' Assurance Association chartered by the State of Kentucky.

Charles Francis Adams, Jr., of Quincy, Mass., read the following paper on

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUPERINTENDENCY.

An educational document has recently been publisht in Massachusetts to which I think I am quite justified in applying the term unique. I refer to the report of MR. GEO. A. WALTON on the common schools of Norfolk County. This report is unique from the fact that it lays before us, not inferences and conclusions, but a mas of raw material;—it shows exactly what those of our common schools examined by him do, and how they do it. This is done through a series of lithographic reproductions of the written exercises handed in by the children; and we of Massachusetts are thus enabld to judge for ourselvs of the quality and value of the articl which is being supplied by that educational mil which costs us so much, and upon which we ar wont not a littl to plume ourselvs.

I would very much like to place a copy of this report of MR. WALTON's in the hands of every one who now hears, or who may hereafter read, what I am about to say, inasmuch as it is the basis and the justification of my argument. Heretofore when, once or twice, I hav availd myself of invitations to address gatherings of teachers, or those engaged in educational work, I hav been so unfortunate as to incur a good deal of hostil remark on account of my somewhat sharp criticisms of the existing common-school system and its results. It has been insisted that I indulged in these criticisms on a very limited and incorrect basis of information. It has further been insisted, not without feeling, that in saying what I did I gave wholly wrong impressions as to the real state of the facts,—that I ignored the work which for years had been quietly going on,—that my field of observation was narrow and singularly exceptional, and that, if I would but go here or there, to this town or to that city, I would find a condition of affairs existing which would make me very much ashamed of all that I had sed.

I hav always spoken, too, on these educational topics, and I speak on them now, confessedly as a layman. My own work has been in other fields, and I hav trespast on this one almost as it wer by accident, in the hurried performance of those smaller civic duties to which every man is liable to be cald. In addressing professional educationists I hav, therefore, simply had it in my mind to tell them, as plainly and directly as I could, how what they wer doing,—their methods and their results,—struck an outsider. How it all imprest one who lookt at it in a common-sens way;—professing no knowledge of teaching as a science,—but having himself been through their educational mil, and since then come in various ways in frequent and tolerably hard contact with the experience of actual life.

The criticisms cald forth by what I hav ventured in this way to say hav, however, led me of late years to take a closer view of the subject. I wisht very much to find out whether it was indeed tru that my narrow field of personal observation was very exceptional in its character, and that by going anywhere else I would find results so very different. Not having time to satisfy myself on these points by personal observation, I hav been very glad to hav one so infinitly more competent as MR. WALTON to reliev me of the task. He has done it most thoroly and effectually, and in a way which seems to me to leav no loop-hole for escape;—

and, as I hav alredy sed, it is of the results,—the actual facts,—he thus spreds before us that I propose to speak. In the first place, then, what ar those facts?—and, in the second place, what conclusions ar we to draw from them ?

In themselvs, the facts seem to me sufficiently startling. The Secretary of the State Board of Education certainly did not overstate the case when in his recent annual report he sed that they wer "not altogether flattering to the pride of a Massachusetts citizen." They certainly ar not, if we accept as just, and I think we must so accept them, the following editorial comments which appeared in the Chicago *Times*, in its issue of March 22d, last:—

"The examinations wer, in the first place, of the simplest and most practical character. There was no nonsense about them. They had but one object—to see if, in the common schools the children wer taught to read, write and cipher. They did not touch the higher branches or the refinements of education: they wer confined to its hard, practical results. * * * As a result it is not too much to say that there is not a single utterly-exploded method of teaching children to read, write, and cipher which was not found flourishing in full vigor within ten miles of Boston State-House. The showing made by some of the towns was excellent, and of them we shal speak presently. In the case of others, and of many others, it is evident from what Mr. Walton says, and stil more evident from what he intimates, that the scholars of fourteen years of age did not know how to read, to write, or to cipher. They could, it is true, repeat the pieces in their school readers, and parse and spell in classes, and rattl off rules in grammar and arithmetic, not one word of which they understood; but if they wer cald upon to write the shortest of letters or the simplest of compositions, or to go through the plainest arithmetical combinations, their failure was complete. They had, in fact, been taught what to them wer conundrums without end; but the idea that the teaching was to be of any practical use in the lives of these children when they grew to be American men and women formd no part of the system, and evidently had never enterd into the heds of the instructors. Take writing, for instance. As Mr. Walton intimates, to be abl to write an ordinary letter of the simplest description is in life not a wholly unuseful accomplishment. He further tels us that in Norfolk County, Massachusetts, 'writing in many schools is limited to what is done in the copy books,' while 'far too much reliance is placed on oral spelling.' The children taught in these exploded ways wer then cald upon to write the simplest of letters, and the results, so far as they ar givn, wer even more fearful than they wer wonderful. In some of the schools the teachers objected to submitting their scholars to so severe a test, while in others it was found that 'the pupils wer wholly unused to the exercise of letter or composition writing; in some, in fact, could neither write nor make the printing letters.' In yet others, the scholars, 'after the materials wer placed in their hands and the directions wer given, sat in apparent amazement, as if the most unreasonable demand had been made upon them; to some, indeed, the directions wer at first incomprehensibl, and had to be many times repeated. Nor was this condition limited to the lower grade of pupils. Some, evn of the grammar grade, after dipping their pen in ink, had nothing to write, and finally returnd the paper as blank as when it was givn them. Very many of both grades gave evidence that they had never been taught evn the mechanical part of any written exercise.' And all that within twenty miles of Harvard college, and in the welthiest portion of New England! Then, when the letters and compositions wer brought in, the ingenuity in bad spelling seems simply incredibl. Unless the different mis-spellings of the word 'scholar,' for instance, wer givn, as in this volume they ar, who would believ that they would be some 230 in number? Then, again, 65 different spellings ar enumerated of the word 'depot'; 108 of the common word 'whose,' and 58 of 'which.' 'Out of 1,122 pupils who used the adverb 'too' in the narratives, 859, or nearly 77 per cent of the whole, spelt the word incorrectly.' Then on pages 218—9 and 246—8 of the report we are givn fac-simile lithographs of these letters and compositions, showing their average excellence in certain of the towns, and anything worse it would be hard to conceiv. Language fails to do justice to them; they only can do it to themselvs."

As I hav alredy intimated, this does not seem to me to be an overstatement of the case, so far as Norfolk County is concernd. I will further ad that from facts within my knowledge I am led to believ that the schools of that county are not, as Mr. Walton says, "neither better nor worse than similar schools in other parts of our state," but that, on the contrary, they ar distinctly among the better of those schools. Norfolk is no poor fishing or agricultural county. On the contrary, lying immediately south of Boston and adjoining the city limits, it contains a number of the more welthy suburban towns, and, upon the average, more money is annually spent on each child in its schools than is spent in any other county in the State with a singl exception. That there ar rural towns, and a rural population in them, in the county, is tru. There ar also in it two of the thre most extravagant towns to their schools in the whole state. Norfolk County, therefore, as a whole, more than fairly represents in this matter the whole state of Massachusetts; and in publishing for general distribution a special edition of Mr. Walton's report, the committee of the Norfolk-County School Association go yet farther than this, and clearly intimate their belief that, if subjected to similar practical tests, the schools of no other section of the country would, as a whole, show any better results. As I hav alredy sed, I am always told that this is not the case,—that an ideal condition of affairs exists, if not in the next county, then surely in some neighboring State. I can only say that I hav as yet seen no evidence of it. That there ar cities and towns which hav been exceptionally fortunate in having intelligent direction, and through it hav secured an excellent system of schools, no one would deny. Speaking generally, however,—taking one district as a whole with another,—what evidence I hav seen leads me to believ that the highly-unsatisfactory condition of affairs which has been found to exist in Massachusetts would, under similar tests, be found to exist pretty much everywhere else.

The question then naturally recurs,—Why is this so?—It certainly is not so becaus the proper apparatus is not supplied, or a sufficiency of money spent on it. In Massachusetts our common schools alone, as now conducted, cost us some $4,000,000 a year. There is then a whole system of Normal Schools to train teachers for the common schools. In fact, as is well known, insted of being behindhand in this matter, Massachusetts is rather famous as a nursery of teachers, who are lookt upon as one of the stapl products of the State. The results shown in the Walton report ar not du then to want of money, or natural aptitude, or suitabl apparatus. To what ar they du?—Mr. Walton says that his "examinations clearly indicate that more depends upon the supervision of the schools than upon all other causes combined;" and the Secretary of the State Board in his accompanying report very distinctly intimates that the one thing in his opinion needful for the Massachusetts common schools is a good system of county supervision.

In this conclusion I wholly concur. But the question yet remains,—What is "a good system of county supervision"?—and ar there in Massachusetts the materials now at hand, and the organization out of which to create it? That we could now organize there a system of supervision, —a new machinery of old school superintendencies,—quite as good as is to be found anywhere else, at least in this country, I do not for an instant question. Is that, however, all that the occasion calls for?—I think not. Unless I greatly misapprehend the signs of the times something very different is needed. And if it should so appear, and we do not at least make an effort towards realizing that something, we wil show ourselvs unequal to the occasion. What is needed is, I think, nothing less than the systematic development and organization of a new phase of the common-school superintendency. This is implied in Mr. DICKINSON's "good system of county supervision."

To make clear, however, what I mean by the development of a new phase of the superintendency,—to satisfy you that this expression represents a distinct idea in my own mind and is not a mere sounding form of words, it is necessary for me to indulge in something of a retrospect. We hav of late years herd a great deal about evolution,—a new word to describe a familiar process. Evolution, as every one knows, is the tendency of things to pas from lower and simpler to higher and more complex forms of organization;—and I now propose to speak of the evolutions of the superintendency. In doing this I fear I cannot avoid saying things which many of those who listen to me,—men who hav done good and honest work in their lives,—men who hav been the pioneers of the coming time wil not like to hear. It is not pleasant to feel oneself clast as of a bygone period,—to hav it plainly intimated that your work may hav been,—nay! was,—good and necessary in its day and place; but that now it is done, and that the time has come for you to make room for something better. Yet, except in Art and in Poetry, this, I take it, is the fate common to all workers. As we build our lives into the great edifice of the higher civilization, we do not, when all is sed and done, rank in the scale of the infinit much higher than the coral insect; and we cannot all work on friez or cornice. The great majority of us must perforce put our labor into the foundations and the inner walls, where it wil forever be out of sight. It is none the less all there, however, and foundation walls ar not without their uses. From architect to hod-carrier, all the workers ar present in the grand result. Fully believing this,—believing it in my own case and my own calling as fully as I believ it in your case and your calling,—I have not deemd it worth while to refrain from saying exactly what I think for fear of hurting some one's feelings.

I hold then that the common-school superintendency has with us past through two distinct phases of development, and is now on the threshhold of a third. The two phases it has past through wer preliminary;

that upon which it is now entering wil prove final. I would designate the two phases of the past as the first, or material, and the intermediate, or pseudo-intellectual phase;—the coming phase I shal call the scientific. I shal endeavor to describe each phase in the plainest and most direct language I can command.

Naturally, the material was the earliest stage. The crying need of the common school thirty and forty years ago was a material one, and the possibilities of the situation wer not appreciated. The school-hous, the window, the out-hous, the desk, the map, the slate, and the text-book all stood in pressing need of intelligent reforming. The low, dark, ill-ventilated, dirty room, with its long rows of benches and continuous desks, hacked and disfigured by the jack-knives of successiv generations, had slowly to giv place to something better. One thing at a time, and this was the first work of the superintendency. It was a necessary, rather than a great work. The office, also, was a new one, and those who filld it wer in no way specially traind for it. They were lookt upon with suspicion by the school committees, and there was a general disposition to make them as nearly as possibl mere purchasing agents and superintendents of—repairs. Perhaps the two great monuments of this erlier period ar the four-square school-hous and the separate desk. They ar good monuments, too. But it is not necessary to spend much time over this erlier phase. It speaks for itself. Evn those solely identified with it wil not claim that its work was more than preliminary. Clenliness, however, is next to Godliness; and those who introduced clenliness, light, and order into the beastly old common school deservd well of their successors.

The material requirements of the schools being in a measure provided for, the next work naturally enough related to education proper. I hav designated this second period as the pseudo-intellectual, because, in its broad features and general results, so far as they hav come within my range of observation, it would seem to cover a time during which an intellectual subject was mechanically delt with. It is not yet over, and the workers in it ar stil upon the stage. To me, viewing the whole proces from the outside, it is not esy to speak of it or of them with more than qualified admiration. So far as organization was concernd, the work was most thoroly done. It was, too, not only a necessary work, but one of great magnitude. It called into play, however, exactly those qualities which the American peopl posses in higher degree than any others, —the qualities which constitute the essence of their political capacity. As every one knows if two Americans meet together for the transaction of busines they instinctivly, as it were, organize;—one of them is appointed chairman and the other secretary, and they make a record of their proceedings. So we in politics have the caucus and the party. When a great domestic war bursts upon us after half a century of peace, we organize our armies and victory with a rapidity which other nations ar at a loss to understand. We hold a world's fair and the whole country crowds to it without confusion, as if by one impulse. The importance of this instinctiv organizing faculty cannot be overestimated. It means empire. It also means, however, the constant tendency towards the uniform and the mechanical,—to what is known in politics as "the machine."

"The individual withers and the world is more and more."

We carry this so far that we sometimes organize for the mere sake of the organization, with little regard at least to the spirit which inspires it; —if, indeed, we stop to ask whether there is any spirit or inspiration at all about it. So, during the period to which I am now referring, we organized our common-school education to meet the tide of immigration and the outward flow of population, and those having the work in charge did it from a mechanical point of view with energy and skil. No one can more fully than I appreciate either the magnitude of the task involvd or the thoroness with which it was done. My admiration of it, is, however, limited to its mechanical aspects. In its spirit and methods this period, on the other hand, seems to me to hav been essentially empirical. There was very little that deservd to be cald scientific about it. The subject-matter with which it had to deal was the training in a purely-educational way of vast aggregates of human minds. Approaching this work in an organizing insted of a scientific spirit, the impossibl, as might hav been foreseen, was attempted. The indefinit multiplication of things to be taught became the fashion of the day, with littl or no regard to the laws of mental development. This went on, until the following is, for instance, the list of studies prescribed by statute to be taught in all the High Schools of Massachusetts:—orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, drawing, the history of the United States, and good behavior. Algebra, vocal music, agriculture, physiology, and hygiene; general history, book-keeping, surveying, geometry, natural philosophy, chemistry, botany, the civil polity of this Commonwelth and of the United States, and the Latin language; the Greek and French languages, astronomy, geology, rhetoric, logic, intellectual and moral philosophy, and political economy.

The children graduating from our high schools may, perhaps, average sixteen years of age. It is supposed that they there complete their education,—a good English education, as it is termd. Every observant parent has more or less of an idea what a child is at sixteen, and how far the proces of mental development has gone. It is not far. And then we read this list of studies as it stands to-day incorporated into the statute book of Massachusetts, a monument of pedagogic incapacity! Rather, perhaps, the self-composed epitaph of organization and mechanism run mad.

With the common schools it fared no better than with the high. The same spirit of unreflecting diffusion,—attempting every thing, accomplishing nothing,—pervaded them also. The frittering of precious years in the vain effort to teach little children everything in purely mechanical ways became the order of the day, until it all naturally resulted in the hands of a class of good, unimaginative, and routine superintendents, in what may perhaps best be described as the drill-sergeant stage in education, or the school company-front. Not that I would by any means be thought to imply that throughout this, as all other periods, many good results were not reacht by means, or in spite, of what I cannot but regard as irrational and mistakn theories and false systems. It is quite unnecessary to say that this always has been and always wil be the case. A born workman wil produce good work no matter how poor his tools or bad his training. So a natural teacher wil teach, and teach successfully, no matter how false the methods he may use. Even in the old, old days, when the grammar of the Latin language with its *propria quae maribus,* was flogd into little boys in the original tung, there wer great teachers who produced great scholars. No one, however, to-day would defend their methods, though then they were, *ex cathedra*, pronounced the best and only correct methods. Without, therefore, at all detracting from the good results accomplisht by individuals, I now refer only to the drift and general tendency of the recent and intermediate period,—the presence of the mechanical and the absence of the intellectual in its character and results.

Whether you recognize any veri-similitude in the picture I hav drawn or not, you all at least know to what I refer. Most of you, indeed, cannot but hav been part and parcel of one of those huge, mechanical, educational machines, or mils, as they might more properly be called. They ar, I believe, peculiar to our own time and country, and ar so organized as to combine as nearly as possible the principal characteristics of the cotton-mil and the railroad with those of the model state's prison. The school committee is the board of directors; while the superintendent,—the chief executiv officer,—sits in his central office with the time-table, which he calls a program, before him, by which one hour twice a week is allotted to this study, and half an hour three times a week to that, and twenty hours a term to a third; and at such a time one class wil be at this point and the other clas at that, the whole moving with military precision to a givn destination at a specified date. Mechanical methods could not be carried further. The organization is perfect. The machine works almost with the precision of clock-work. It is, however, company front all the time. From one point of view children are regarded as automatons;—from another as India-rubber bags;—from a third as so much raw material. They must move in step and exactly alike;—they must receiv the same mental nutriment in equal quantities and at fixt times. Its assimilation is wholly immaterial, but the motions must be gone through with. Finally, as raw material, they are emptied in at the primaries and marched out at the grammar grades;—and it is well!

This has seemd to me the very general,—in fact the inevitable result on the large scale, of the system of superintendency in vogue during the last twenty-five years. I also believ that as a phase of development it was a natural and necessary one. It had to be past through, though it immediately resulted in several undesirabl things. In the first place, so far as the child was concernd, the imitative or memorizing faculties only were cultivated, and little or no attention was paid to the thinking or reflectiv powers. Indeed, it may almost be sed that a child of any originality, or with individual characteristics, was lookt upon as wholly out of place in a public school. The ideal, under the system, was masses of children, designated from usage by names insted of more conveniently by numbers, who lernd certain rules by heart and applied them with mechanical promptitude and correctness. Any deviation from this semi-military method was sternly represt as a breach of correct discipline. Starting from this point the course of so-called educational development up to a recent period has been natural, logical, and common-place. There hav been just three steps to it—memorizing, examinations, programs; —the two last the latest educational hobbies, built upon the traditional foundation of the first. The proces through which these led from one on to the next, is obvious enough. In the first place, time out of mind all knowledge was, educationally speaking, lookt upon as a vast accumulation of facts, rules, and definitions, and the grand aim and object of teaching was to impart as many as possibl of these to the youthful mind. The way to impart was to caus them to be laboriously committed to memory. Thus the teacher sat in his chair, a sort of lone fisherman on the shore of the great ocean of things known, and he hookt up out of it, now a rule, and now a fact, and then again a definition, and he gave them to the children, and saw that they swallowed them, whether they liked them or not, and whether they wer nourisht by them or not. But in proces of time it became apparent to the more observing that the knowledge thus imparted was not retaind, and the examination was then devised as a means of assuring the purveyor of knowledge that the facts, rules, and definitions imparted were held, so to speak, on the intellectual stomach for at least a reasonabl period. The examination, however, as it was organized and gradually ramified into a fully-developed whole, almost necessarily cald the program into existence. The world of knowledge was too large,—there wer too many facts and rules and definitions for the teacher, as well as for the taught, and so, for the protection of the former, it became necessary to stake out from the wide domain, by certain metes and bounds, the districts within which he was to search for the hiddn treasures. Anything obtaind, or to be obtaind outside, was not to count. The program was thus a relief to the teacher, clearly marking as it did the limits within which the cramming proces was to be carried on. It made his work possibl. The development of the system was then complete.

Under these circumstances,—education being reduced to little more than a mechanical process of cramming, with periodical nerv trials to ascertain the degree of retention,—the average child not unnaturally felt towards his school, and what was there required of him, very much as a lerned dog or monkey may be supposed to feel towards his taskmaster. Accordingly the sickening dislike of school, and of things taught at school, is with the majority of those emancipated from it the strongest association connected with erly life. It is I know very decidedly so in my own case. To this day I never pas through the street in Boston in which stands the public school-hous to which I went as a boy, without experiencing a recurrence of the prison chil.

If, however, the influence of this system on the children was bad, on the instructors and superintendent it was much wors. Every period of purely-mechanical organization is sure in those at the head of affairs to result in a condition of intense self-satisfaction and contentment. It makes very little difference whether it is in art, or in literature, or in science, or in the army. It is natural enough, too, that this should be so, for mechanical excellence is, comparativly speaking, always esy of attainment, and, once it is attaind, it is in its way perfection; there is in that direction nothing beyond. Accordingly the self-sufficiency of the Eastern educationists, as a clas,—their satisfaction and thoro contentment, both with themselvs and with the situation was, up to a quite recent period, most discouraging. Recurring to the impetus givn to the system forty years ago by Horace Mann, they could not get rid of the idea that they wer themselvs reformers:—and as such they wer not idle. Their activity, however, expended itself in one direction—the mechanical—and they organized and developt until, as I have endevord to show, the examination was superadded as a test gauge to the infinit multiplicity of studies, and the program meted out the limits of examinations, and percentages wer developt: and so the art of absolutely useles cramming was carried to perfection, and became the great end and aim of all teaching.

The work of organization being completed, the mechanical in studies was, in short, overdone. Under these circumstances it required no prophet to foresee that a reaction was at hand. Educational thought was sure to take a new direction. The first indications of this appeard quite a number of years ago, but it is only of late that the movement has assumed a more definit shape and is finding clearer expression. This reaction is founded on very deep principls. Its direction is away from mechanism and towards science. Indeed the cardinal principle of this " New Departure," if it may be so designated, is that there is just as much a science in developing the more ordinary faculties of the human mind, as there is in raising crops or extracting minerals from the erth. There is an esy, natural, and attractiv way of training the intellect, as there is of training the body, if your filosofy could but find it out. It is not the way to find it out, however, to analyze the thing to be taught,—dividing and defining, and taking to pieces and putting together. On the contrary, the work must begin at the other end. The operation of the child's mind,—the natural processes of growth and assimilation which go on in it,—its inherent methods of development and acquisition, must be long and patiently studied. The superintendent of the future is thus a Baconian in his filosofy. He rejects at once all mechanism, all tradition, all *a-priori* theories, all military methods. He has recours to a slow, patient proces of induction. He treats the child's mind as a living, growing thing; not as a mere plastic mas. It is an organism which assimilates; not so much raw material to which any desired shape can be givn. His first busines, therefore, is to study its processes of assimilation, and to follow them;—not as heretofore to invent a system and make the scholar fit himself to it as best he may. Then presently we hav, as the fruit of this, the word-method of teaching to read, in place of the preposterous, though time-honored, alphabetical method. The instructor had begun at the other end. Insted of studying filology, and treatises upon the elementary instruction thereof, he had taken to watching the infant in its mother's arms and at play. He saw it lern to speak and to walk, and analyzed the processes through which it did it. Then he follows the school-boy out to the ball-ground and the skating-pond. Wherever he goes he notices one thing, that at every age, from infancy to manhood, the child is continually lerning to do with infinit ease and skil things most difficult to do,—things which he himself would in vain attempt. If he questions that fact, he has but carefully to study the principls of equilibrium and momentum, and then, having thoroly masterd them and got them at his tung's end, let him go upon the ice and try to follow some boy through a little fancy skating. He has taught the boy the rules of grammar and then cald upon him to write the English language;—why is it that he, having taught himself each principl of speed and balance involvd, cannot now slide off on the outer edge. To skate is as difficult as to write,—it is probably more difficult. Yet in spite of hard teaching in the one case, and no teaching in the other, the boy can skate beautifully, and he cannot write his nativ tung at all. So the superintendent of the future lerns a lesson on the skating-pond, and goes home from it with a new conception of the littl value of formulas and more faith in practice. Thus it is in everything. The processes he applies to the child he finds that he cannot get any results from when he applies them to himself. Take base-ball, for instance. He teaches the child to write by putting it in a certain position with a pen in its hand, and causing it to imitate with up and down strokes a printed legend at the hed of the page of a copy-book;—this is done three half hours a week. Then he himself studies the rules of base-ball and takes a bat in his hand and imitates blows and runs imaginary bounds, and keeps it up painfully and conscientiously,—as a good boy writes—three half hours a week for the entire term. And at the end of the term he can no more play base-ball than the boy can write. Then he turns to the examination papers of the Norfolk-county schools in Mr. WALTON's report, and no longer asks himself—Why is this so?—It is all clear to him now. He has been expecting of littl children what he could not do himself. So he goes back to the beginning, and, before he undertakes to teach, sits humbly down, a grown man, at Nature's kne and patiently cons the alfabet of her methods.

The scientific superintendency is, however, as yet in its first infancy. It is wholly unorganized. How completely it is in its infancy,—how wholly it lacks organization,—becomes very apparent when the single indisputabl fact is stated that in this country the development of the average human mind in masses is not recognized by our highest institutions of lerning as a scientific study at all. They pay no attention to it; —make no provision for it. They hav medical schools devoted to the study of man's body;—they hav dental schools devoted to the study of his teeth:—but any one who isn't a fool, the lerned doctors tell us, can train the child's mind! All there is to know on that subject can be told in half an hour, and lernd by practice at an older teacher's side in a few weeks! Is not this curious?—That it is a fact is indisputabl. There is a science of law; and schools and professors to teach it. There is a science of agriculture; and colleges devoted to its study. There is a science of mining; and institutes of technology in which it is taught. It is evn claimd that there is a science of divinity. But when it comes to the educational development of those who ar to constitute the future State, tho we spend millions on millions upon it, the universities turn their heds away and clas them as something les than the gras of the field. They grade the child's mind as lower than its teeth. They assume that any callow youth, fresh from his graduate cours and with the ink hardly dry on his degree, is quite competent to train the first, tho not to take care of the last. We thus turn over our children to those whom we would never dream of entrusting with our potato patch.

Such a denial in a republic of a science of general as distinguisht from higher education assuredly merits to be clast as one of the inexplicabl facts of the day. To it, and to it alone, may be attributed the long continuance of the company-front and time-table fase of the superintendency,—the slowness with which the scientific is made in our common-school methods to supersede the mechanical and automatic. Accordingly we hav the results we hav; and, I am sorry to say, that in spite of all local and disconnected strivings after better things, the condition of affairs found by Mr. WALTON in Norfolk county, is likely to continue to be found there, as wel as pretty much everywhere else, by whoever chooses to look, until the whole subject is approacht in a new spirit and from a new direction. The old *ex-cathedra* utterances must be disregarded and all faith in prescriptiv ways abandond; while, in place thereof, the existence of a new field of scientific inquiry must be recognized.

Coming directly from Norfolk county, therefore,—having for years been cognizant of and to the best of my ability dealing with the very condition of affairs which Mr. WALTON describes,—I cannot look for the remedy for it through any supervision which means simply mere mechanical methods, mere company fronts, mere time-tables. We want supervision badly enough, but not that supervision;—and where any other kind of supervision is at present to come from in the degree and volume required it is somewhat difficult to se. It is certainly not the province of the Normal Schools to supply it. They educate teachers, it is tru, but the work in hand is something more than direct teaching;—it is the filosofy of teaching. It is a distinctly-higher walk of the profession. It accordingly implies in those who devote themselves to it a preceding groundwork of general education not required in the pupils of our Normal Schools. It is in fact a legitimate portion of University training, which always supposes the groundwork of an undergraduate course.

Here, however, we come in direct contact with a traditional feeling;—and of all difficulties to be overcome a traditional feeling is the most difficult. Time out of mind,—from the erliest colonial days to the present hour,—the Eastern colleges hav livd in the faith that the chief useful purpose of the master's desk in a common school was to afford a poor subsistence to those of their graduates who wer struggling forward to future eminence at the bar or in the ministry. That tradition has survived the simpl condition of things in which it originated and had its uses, and now it has become the bane of the common-school system. It singls out teaching in it as an unworthy thing,—as a mere calling, which can lay no claim to being an honorabl profession, much les an elevating science. Any 'prentice hand is equal to it. And holding this tradition in regard to elementary teaching, the Universities hav faild to draw the line between the superintendent and the usher. They hav, on the contrary, held aloof from the whole subject as one of littl consideration, and by so doing separated, in so far as they could, the college from the district school. This in America was most unfortunate;—unfortunate for the college,—unfortunate for the district school. Here is a wide field which might be made to return a harvest of untold richnes, and at Cambridge and New Haven it is treated as a barren waste. In so treating it those universities ar not fulfilling their mission. They ar not influencing as they should the destinies of the continent.

The immediate difficulty is, therefore, as I se it, with the Universities. So far as the common schools are concernd they ar not doing their work. All my own individual experience certainly points to this conclusion, and I feel as confident of it as I do of anything which does not admit of demonstration. What the common schools need is a scientific impulse and direction, and they wil respond to it with a magical quickness. This is the whole secret of that movement in Quincy which has recently excited so wide an attention. The same result under similar influences would, I feel sure, follow everywhere. The remedy, therefore, for the condition of affairs reveald in the WALTON report is to my mind, an obvious one, tho one which does not admit of immediate application. In this matter, however, the longest way round wil be found the shortest way home. The superintendency of the common schools must follow in the path of development which the other professions hav pursued.

And in this connection we may as wel recall to mind how very few years it is since divinity, medicin, and law evn wer any of them scientifically studied. At Cambridge,—the oldest and most fully developt of our Universities,—the Divinity School dates but from 1819, the Medical School from 1782, and the Law School from 1817; while the Scientific School there, and the School of Technology in Boston ar of evn later origin; the former going back only to 1850, while the latter is as recent as 1865. Thus the whole system of American scientific education is les than a century old.

For my present purpose, however, the law, perhaps, affords the better analogy from which to illustrate the existing needs and future development of the general education. It is but a very few years since the same line of argument was herd in regard to the former, that is now herd in regard to the latter. The attempt to deal with it as a science was deprecated. It was declared that the best possibl legal training was that acquired in the office of some advocate of establisht reputation in activ practice. The student was a veritabl limb of the Law. He began by drawing writs and copying legal documents. He did what the young teacher must do now, approacht the filosofy of his profession, if he approacht it at all, through its drudgery; but it was thought necessary to make the drudgery its most prominent feature. So the young teacher still begins with the humdrum of the school-room; and it is argued that six months' service as the assistant of a good master is better than any amount of theoretical training!

The question I am discussing is politically, as I take it, therefore, of the most far-reaching consequence. It is paramount in its importance. The general education is passing through a phase of transition made necessary by our progress in numbers and in material resources. The question is how to impart to the average human mind in the mas the greatest possibl amount of training, at once elementary and useful, in the least possibl time and at the minimum of cost. Here is something of a problem. Those whose busines it is to deal with it ar claiming recognition for it as a science, and a great science; and the claim has not yet been listened to. Clinging to their traditions, the universities continue to assert that there is no teaching worthy of the name of teaching, or deserving of an educated man's attention, short of the Latin grammar. The necessity for a scientific training exists, but there is no provision for supplying it. Hence the present movement of the waters. That they ar troubld, no one denies;—but, while some assert that the troubl is du to a mere spirit of meaningless agitation which will soon subside, leaving the old order of things restored and forever vindicated, others se that a great change is impending. It is a deep-felt need which is now in its own way making itself herd.

There being as yet no provision for the constant supply of men trained to carry on this work, the movement, such as it is, is, for the present, local, spasmodic, and unreliable. It is an advance by points, not along the line; and the ground gaind is never secure. In order better to illustrate my meaning, let me refer to the case with which I hav immediately had to deal, that of Quincy. Quincy is one of the towns of Norfolk county, but, as the result of six years of sustaind intelligent effort, we hav succeeded in introducing into its schools what Mr. Walton terms in his report "rational methods of teaching." Certainly the change has been greater and more gratifying than those engaged in bringing it about ever supposed possibl. It has, also, attracted a degree of widespread attention which is one of the encouraging symptoms of the time. It shows, at least, that on this subject the public mind is in a thoroly-receptive condition. The nature and scope of our "New Departure" I hav endevord to describe in another paper, and, therefore, I do not propose to occupy any time in discussing it here. There ar, however, two points in connection with it to which I wish to refer, becaus of the very erroneous impressions which hav seemd to exist in regard to them. It has often been very confidently asserted that the, so-called, Quincy system amounted simply to the introduction into a place, where it had never before been herd of, of the old familiar Froebel method of object teaching, and that it did not extend beyond the Primary schools;—that there was nothing new about it. That there is, indeed, nothing new in what has been undertakn and accomplisht at Quincy I entirely admit,—in the sense that there is nothing new under the Sun. I do not doubt that everything we hav done, or attempted, has often been done before by many persons and in many places. Whether it has been thus done or not, however, it is certainly, in application at least, new with us and in Massachusetts; and, so far as our critics are concernd, it is apparent from what they say, if I may judge from such portion of their criticisms as hav come to my notice, that it is so very new to them that they ar either unwilling or absolutely unabl to take it in, even when it is carefully explaind to them. Neither is it by any means confined to FROEBEL's method, or to our primary instruction. On the contrary it is a distinct method of general, elementary education, or rather of mind-training, as different from the old method, stil, so far as I know, in general use, with a few notabl exceptions, throughout the country, as one thing wel can be different from another; that it is an infinit advance upon it, my own recollections tel me, and I see it in the faces of my children. It is intelligent teaching, as opposed to formal teaching,—the training of the mind, as opposed to the disciplining of the memory. That object teaching and the word-method ar parts of it, and that it begins with the primaries, ar, as propositions, undeniabl. That much that we do has heretofore been attempted elsewhere, and frequently faild, is equally undeniabl;—most successes hav been preceded by failures, and if every experiment had been abandond after one failure we would probably, if we had come to this meeting at all, hav come here on foot;—most certainly we would not hav been drawn here by a locomotiv engin. Tho it is tru, therefore, that the Quincy system begins with the Primaries, it is not tru that it ends with the Grammar Schools;—on the contrary it goes into the High School, and extends through the grown-up lives of the children. Our attempt has been to call into play,— to do our work upon,—a clas of faculties in the human mind which, when I was a child, and again when as a man I was brought in contact with our common-schools, wer wholly ignored,—I mean the thinking and reflecting, as opposed to the memorizing and imitative faculties. When I was a child I wel remember that the fact of my understanding or not understanding my lesson was deemd wholly immaterial. My present task was to commit it to memory, and I would understand it hereafter——if GOD so willd. Meanwhile my memory was now disciplined. This same method I found in use six years ago in our schools; and then it was I first understood rules, which the children repeated to me in parrot-like precision, and which I had myself lernd forty years before, and,—thank Heaven!—in the meantime wholly forgotten. In Quincy we hav changed all that. We try now to treat the child throughout as a moral, reasoning being; and not as an automation. And so we begin with Froebel's method and end with the Public Library. They ar both factors in our Quincy common schools now, only the library is far the more important factor of the two.

We hav thus, as I very confidently maintain, a complete, tho as yet, of cours, a very imperfect and immature system of rational common-school teaching in Quincy. The difficulty with it, however, is a practical and very serious one,—it is its extreme isolation. The tendency is always backward, into the surrounding ruts,—old, and worn and hard. Teachers come to Quincy, for instance, and take up a clas in the middl of the cours. They do not understand it,—they do not know what to make of it. They insensibly begin to teach in the familiar, conventional way,—the way in which they themselvs wer taught. They set the children to memorizing, to repeating formulas. They go to work secreting in their minds solid nuggets of wisdom, just about as nutritious as an equal amount of led would be in their stomachs. It is months before these teachers make out what it all means. Under such circumstances of what use ar boys, with fresh degrees in their pockets and the law in their minds?—To do the work men must look upon teaching as a career, and not as a makeshift.

This is one of the practical difficulties incident to isolation. Another is that the children cannot wel go from the Quincy schools to those of other towns and cities without being sent back at once to lower grades and the old processes. This experience is uniform. They ar lookt upon as having been instructed in wholly false methods. It is tru that they know how to read, to write, and to cipher, with remarkable facility; but then they ar very poorly equipt with rules, they know the answers to but few conundrums, and they ar absolutely ignorant of the time-honord formula. They can express their thoughts on a sheet of paper wonderfully wel and clearly,—they cannot parse!—They actually do not know a neuter verb when they se it, nor can they explain why it is neuter. Neither, I am rejoiced to say, can I. That much at least of the rubbish stuft into me in my youth I hav happily discharged myself of.

The tendency with the Quincy schools, therefore, both is and must continue to be, retrograde,—towards the old irrational methods,—the dril-sergeant superintendency with its platoon front and its time-table schedules. The same tendency is undoubtedly felt by all others in similar positions. It is the penalty one pays for being in any way exceptional. To be succesful the advance must be along the whole line; and there can be no advance along the whole line until the line is not only officerd, but officerd in such a way as to act under a concerted, as wel as a scientific, impulse. And thus we ar brought back to the immediate need of the hour, which would seem to be, not a development of the existing methods of the superintendency, but some action directed on the universities to influence them to enter upon the work of organizing the superintendency into a profession. They must create a clas, individual members of which ar alredy at work. A clas which shal be to the teacher what the staf officer of the army is to the line officer,—what the jurist is to the attorney,—what the fysician is to the farmacist. They must be imbued with the science of their calling. We need, in a word, another and distinct post-graduate cours, with chairs occupied by professors of pedagogy, as it is called, but which is in reality nothing but the familiar science of psychology, hitherto as barren as it is old, but made useful at last in practical connection with teaching. When this is done the higher lerning wil at last hav been brought to bear on the common-school system. The beneficial effect of such a combination in a country like ours, ruled and to be ruled by that universal suffrage, which is but the expression of the average common sense and the average instruction, would be, it is safe to say, impossibl to forecast and not esy to overestimate.

I am not here, however, to discus these visions of the future. My object is a severely-practical one, and relates to the immediate, and not to the remote future. It is exprest in the very commonplace and perfectly-intelligibl question,—what is the next step before us to better the condition of affairs reveald in the WALTON report?—Is it, as has been suggested, to extend and perpetuate the existing system of supervision,—to organize it into a county system,—to bring it under the control of a central directing head?—There ar those for whose judgment I entertain a very high respect who hold that this is the proper cours to pursu. I am aware that the burden of authority as wel as of numbers is against me, but, as I hav alredy sed, I am of a different opinion. I hold that the remedy does not lie in this direction. That this, as things now go, means simply more mechanical organization,—a further infusion into our schools of the spirit of the factory, the railroad and the state-prison. I hold that the immediate effort should, on the contrary, be directed towards the universities,—the missing link between them and the common school should be supplied. The superintendency should in this way be reorganized on a scientific basis.

It is to suggest this view of the next step to be taken that I am here;—for, if I am right, the effort now likely to be put forth in consequence of the WALTON report wil prove a misdirected effort. I can, therefore, take but a partial interest in it. To be effectual, the reform must, in my opinion, begin much further back and be developt in a far more comprehensiv spirit. Until it does so begin and is so developt, I am obliged to say that I can see no great advantages likely to result from disturbing the existing condition of things.

The Hon. GUSTAVUS J. ORR, of Atlanta, Ga, read the following paper on

THE EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO—ITS RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATUS.

Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen:

I come before you to-night to discuss a subject of the deepest public concern; and I am happy to know that my audience is composed of persons with minds broadened by culture, liberalized by learning, and capable of weighing properly whatever may be advanced. I am happy, moreover, to believe that sufficient time has now elapsed for reason to begin to assert her sway, and that men of all sections of our common country are now prepared to hear with candor. This I shall expect of my present audience; and I do not believe I shall be disappointed. I promise on my part to exercise the same candor which I look for in you.

African slavery, either fortunately or unfortunately, was introduced into the colony of Virginia in the year 1620—two hundred and sixty years ago. Soon after, this example was followed by the other colonies; and not a great many years had elapsed before every one of them became slaveholding. The laws of climate, the laws governing the remunerativeness of negro labor, and other influences caused slavery soon to begin to gravitate Southward; and this movement continued till at the time the colonies declared themselves, independent in 1776, the great bulk of the five hundred thousand negroes then in the country were to be found in the Southern States. The existence of slavery in the South formed the basis of a civilization in that section entirely distinct in many particulars from that found in the Northern portion of the Union.. It early became evident that, as in the celebrated instance recorded in sacred history, two nations, as it were, were struggling to the birth.

The difference in social influences, the difference in moral teachings, the difference in interest, the differences in the theories of the constitution generally held in the two sections, and, indeed, the difference in the entire surroundings separated very widely the two peoples. Each section misunderstood the other in a hundred particulars; and the obstacles to a better understanding constantly grew in magnitude as time moved on. The terrible war which followed, in which men of a common origin, priding themselves in a common history, cherishing the same glorious traditions, and of equal bravery met in deadly strife,—I do not propose to trace. Would that the horrors of that fearful period could be buried forever in oblivion, or, if remembered at all, that they might be recalled only for the useful lessons which they teach! I do not refer to the subject to-night for the purpose of locating the blame of the fratricidal strife,—for Heaven knows there was wrong enough on both sides. I have to do, rather, with the harmless race who were the innocent cause of the unhappy struggle and of all the terrible sufferings which it entailed. Was it a mercy to that people that they were brought to these shores and subjected to so many long years of servitude? Was it one of the purposes in the Divine mind to prepare them, by the stern discipline of slavery, for something better? Was slavery, indeed, the divinely-appointed tutelage by which they were to be brought forward to a higher plane of civilization? These are questions which deserve our thoughtful consideration, now that we have reached the period of calm, philosophic reflection. In order to give them a proper answer, let us first consider the condition of the race in their native home; and, secondly, the influences, civil, social, and religious, brought to bear upon them in their long period of slavery. We shall thus be led to see that slavery was a great educator, perhaps the greatest and most wisely conceived that could have been devised.

As to the low condition of the Negro tribes near the western coast of Africa, whence the former slaves of this country were originally brought, all authorities are agreed. They were simply savages, practising Fetichism, the very lowest form of idolatry. They were the slaves of the most degrading superstitions, believing in spells, charms, and incantations, and having no system of rules of conduct deserving the name of a moral code. In regard to their intellectual condition, one author says, "It is impossible to name a region tolerably peopled, where any progress at all has been made in the arts, which is so completely illiterate as Negro Africa. It is not enough to say that it has neither books, authors, nor learned men. In no part of this extended region is there an alphabet or a hieroglyphic, or even a picture, or symbol of any description. All those refined processes by which the ideas of one mind are to pass into the minds of others are entirely unknown."*

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*Encyclopædia of Geography.—*Murray.*

Now, I say nothing of the manner in which these Africans were introduced into this country, or of the motives of those who introduced them. With matters of this kind, this discussion has nothing to do. I simply put this question: Suppose a population of the kind above described had been set down in considerable numbers in the midst of a community well advanced in Christian civilization, and a body of wise, philanthropic men had been convened to consider and report upon the question as to what should be the relations of this new population to the community in which they had been introduced, what conclusion do you suppose would have been reached? Would they have advised that these strangers be incorporated into the body politic with rights equal to those of other citizens? It seems to me that, intelligence and virtue being the recognized foundation-stones of liberal government, the wise men supposed, even looking to the interest of the new comers alone, would have advised a probationary tutelage hedged about with salutary restraints, and backed by the strong arm of power. The ablest writers on government of modern times with all the lessons of the past before them, and enjoying all the advantages of the advanced thought of the age, have taught us that governments must be arbitrary or liberal, stronger or milder, according as the people to be governed are ignorant or intelligent, of feeble or strong moral principles. The wise men supposed, in making the recommendation suggested, would have been but conforming to these well-known teachings of our philosophic thinkers. Now, the condition to which the slaves of the South were ultimately advanced did not differ very largely from the supposed condition advised by the hypothetical wise men. The slavery of the South was often denounced by Northern writers and speakers as *chattel* slavery, and many persons throughout that section doubtless fully believed that slaves were treated, under the law, simply as things. No greater mistake was ever committed. The slavery of the South was very far removed from absolute or pure slavery. I hope you will allow one reared in the midst of the things which he describes, to speak freely and frankly to you of what has been familiar to him from childhood. I think, perhaps, that I shall be able to show you that the relation of the slave of the South to the society of which he formed a part, whether so intended or not, was really that of a species of inchoate citizenship. It was a state of slavery, indeed, but a slavery with many benign modifications. The three great absolute rights of Englishmen—rights which belong to all to whom English institutions have descended as an inheritance—are, according to Blackstone, the right of personal security, the right of personal liberty, and the right of private property. While it was not pretended that the Southern slave was permitted to enjoy these rights in the sense in which you understand them, yet I propose to show that he did enjoy them all in a modified sense. I am not a lawyer, and therefore do not feel myself capable of presenting a professional view of this part of my subject; nor do I think that a presentation of that kind would be appropriate or interesting to an audience such as the one before me. I hope, however, that I shall be able to give such a view, though unprofessional, as shall make good before you the declarations made.

"The right of personal security consists in a person's legal and uninterrupted enjoyment of his life, his limbs, his body, his health, and his reputation:" so says the authority just referred to. In a state of absolute or pure slavery the subject of it is divested of this right in all its specified details. In the slavery of the South it was secured to him by legislative enactment in most of the particulars enumerated. The murder of a slave was punished with death; and the maiming of him was visited with very heavy penalties. Indeed, resistance to the infliction of these wrongs by a slave, even to the homicide of him seeking to do them, was considered by our law as justifiable. An examination of our Southern codes will further show that all other injuries done to the person, not amounting to deprivation of life or limb, such as assaulting, beating, wounding, etc., when done to slaves were made penal. It is true that the master had the right to correct his slave for disobedience, idleness, petty theft, quarrelling, fighting, or other offence of a sufficiently-serious character; but for all cruelties, or needless and wanton punishments inflicted by masters severe penalties were provided; and so tender was our law of the rights of the helpless slave, that in a contest with his master it was made the duty of the court to assign him competent counsel. For injuries done the reputation of the slave no redress was provided; but even this omission was not without its reason as one of the main grounds for providing redress in such cases, viz.: the injury done to one's business and the consequent abridgment of his means of support, did not exist at all in his case.

The second great right of the citizen, the right of personal liberty, "which consists in the power of locomotion, of changing situation, or moving one's person to whatsoever place one's own inclination may direct, without imprisonment or restraint, unless by due course of law" it was not even sought to guarantee to the southern slave by legislative enactment. The main design of slavery being to secure to the master the services of the slave, the theory of the institution seemed to require that the former should have the right of directing and controlling the movements of the latter, and the law was so framed as to secure him in this right. Almost universal usage, however, required that this right should be exercised in kindness and mercy; and in a thousand ways the theoretical rigor of the law was abated in practice. The very largest liberty of locomotion compatible with the ends of slavery and the best interests of the community as constituted was allowed by all humane masters to slaves who were faithful and who could be trusted. It may be further added that while the master had the right to control the liberty of the slave, no other person could do so with safety; for the master was the legally-recognized protector of the slave, and always appeared upon the scene when an unlawful attempt was made to interfere with the personal liberty of the latter, either to enforce such legal remedies as were provided or to extemporize remedies of his own where the law had provided none. One good effect of this control exercised by masters—good in its influence upon the slave—stands out and is patent to every observer, now that slavery has been abolished. I refer to the habits of industry thus generated. Observers from other portions of the Union, Southern men, and even the former slaves themselves, all unite in bearing testimony to the fact that the freedmen trained up in the days of slavery are far more industrious, much more thrifty, and far better laborers than those who have grown up under the influences of their newly-obtained freedom.

It remains now to consider the last of the three great absolute rights of the citizen, viz.: The right of private property, which has been said to consist "in the free use, enjoyment, and disposal of all his acquisitions, without any control or diminution, save only by the laws of the land." This right, like the last considered, did not belong at all to the slave under the law. All the acquisitions of the slave, of every kind, vested in and belonged to the master, who could use them and dispose of them in whatsoever manner seemed to him best. This is the way theory put it. There is a law, however, in the presence of which opposing human enactments have, in all countries, and in all ages of the world, been impotent. I allude to the law of a generally-received, well-established public opinion. What the commonly-received opinion requires to be done, in any community, is always done in the absence of laws which require it, and even in the face of such as forbid. The general sense of all communities in the South required that the slave have the right to the full enjoyment of acquisitions made in time allowed him by custom, or in time specially granted to him; and depriving him of these acquisitions on the part of the master would have been universally regarded as an act of ineffable meanness. No man could do such a thing in the face of the outraged sense of right in the community. In practice, the condition of our slaves in respect to the wants usually supplied by the full enjoyment of the right of property was far better than that of the laboring poor in many free communities. In the first place, the supply of all their physical wants was assured. Their masters were required by the law to furnish them with a sufficiency of wholesome food and comfortable raiment, and to support them in infancy, in sickness, and in old age. The law requiring this was enforced by heavy penalties, and the records of the courts in my own State will show, within my own knowledge, that these penalties have been enforced with the approval of entire communities. In addition to this sure support, it was a universal custom for planters to assign certain plots of ground to their slaves, giving to each the usufruct of the part assigned him, and the time, work-animals, and agricultural implements necessary for its cultivation. It was a common thing for the slaves to realize from the sale of the produce of these plots of ground from ten to one hundred dollars each, and in rare instances, these annual accumulations have been known to reach several hundred dollars. Slaves were now and then permitted also to own a few swine, some fowls, and sometimes a cow. Their right to these little acquisitions was considered sacred, and any disposition made of their effects by verbal will was most religiously executed. Even as I now speak, one dusky face comes up before me, the face of an humble playmate of my childhood, who, in the days of slavery, returned from a neighboring State to receive at the hands of my good stepmother, acting as voluntary executrix, a considerable sum of money and other effects left him by the nuncupative will of his dying mother. But I need say nothing further on this head.

I will next speak briefly of the educational effect upon the slaves of the social life of the South. I feel conscious of my inability to give to those who were not of us a thoroughly true view of the domestic and social relations subsisting between the slaves of the South and their masters. Perhaps I can make the nearest approach to this by throwing together a number of seemingly-disjointed particulars, trusting to the effect which they may produce as a whole. The domestic government prevailing upon the plantations was largely patriarchal. All differences among the slaves, and all minor offences even, such as would now be referred to the courts, were brought before the master for adjudication, and were patiently heard and determined by him, and with much more of justice than can often be reached, in the present condition of things, before the civil tribunals. In cases of sickness, the very best medical aid was summoned, and the mistress of the household often administered the medicines in person, ordered such delicacies as might be needed, saw that necessary attendance was furnished, and frequently, in extreme cases, watched in person through the weary vigils of the night, with the tenderest solicitude, by the humble bedside of the sufferer. Throughout the hill country of the South embracing nearly one-half of that extensive territory, the labors imposed on the slaves were light; and the farms yielded but little, if anything, more than a support, the owners relying for their profits solely upon the natural increase of their slave property. The boys, white and colored, hunted and fished together, and mingled in the same rural sports with great freedom, the former, however, always exacting a deferential obedience and respect, which the latter were taught, from the very cradle, by their seniors of both races, to yield. The colored youth could not fail thus to take on some of the bearing, to imbibe some of the spirit, and to acquire, to some extent, the moral tone of his white associate. In like manner, female domestics, by rendering service in families of culture, often acquired much of the refinement of those upon whom they attended, and, by having a good example constantly before them, learned much as to the proper use of the English language. From the intercourse between young masters and mistresses and their domestics, as I have sketched it, ties of the tenderest affection and life-long in duration were often formed.

Among the educational agencies brought to bear upon the slaves of the South, I speak, lastly, of the influence of the labors of the various Christian churches among them. In these labors all the churches of the South took a very deep interest. Among these churches I may mention, of my own knowledge, the Protestant Episcopal, the Presbyterian, the Baptist, and the Methodist, as being especially active. I cannot, perhaps, in any other way give you as correct a view of the character and extent of this work as by stating certain great facts. I may say, then, that it was the universal custom of all the churches of the South to receive slaves into full and regular membership, that the spiritual welfare of the colored church members was looked after with great solicitude by the official members of the different churches; that the slaves and their masters worshipped in the same houses, the only distinction being that different portions of these houses were assigned for occupancy to the two races; that, at the holy communion, they partook of the same elements, administered by the same hands, at the same time, but always at different tables; that the ministers were universally expected to visit and labor with the slaves pastorally, administering to them the consolations of our holy religion in sickness and burying them when dead; that, in many places, special services, at least once on the Sabbath, were appointed for the exclusive benefit of the slaves: that very generally Sabbath schools were established for the religious instruction of the slaves in which they were taught orally from catechisms carefully prepared by the ablest divines of the different denominations, such men, for instance, as Dr. WINKLER, of Charleston, from among the Baptists, Dr. JONES, of Georgia, of the Presbyterians, and the sainted Bishop CAPERS, of South Carolina, from among the Methodists; and, lastly, that it was the custom on many of the plantations for cultivated Christian mistresses to assemble, with their own smaller children, the younger servants of the household on the afternoon of the Sabbath, and to read to them and expound the sacred oracles, and drill them catechetically for the purpose of fixing in their memories the precious truths therein inculcated. I had hoped to be able to give you statistics, showing the scope, the extent, and the character of this great work. In this I have been disappointed, as I have found it impossible to procure the necessary records from which to obtain the requisite data. I find, however, in the life of the late Bishop CAPERS certain definite information in respect to the Missionary work of the Methodist church among the slaves in the State of South Carolina. I will occupy your time with only two or three great facts from this record. The good Bishop's heart was early touched with Christian sympathy for the colored people, and he ceased to feel and labor for their welfare only when he ceased to live. But to the facts. At the earnest solicitation of this good man, the South-Carolina Conference sent two of their number, for the first time, to labor as Missionaries to the blacks on the southern plantations in the year 1829. At the time of the Bishop's death, in 1855, there were twenty-six colored missionary stations in South Carolina alone, comprising a membership of 11,546, served by thirty-two missionaries; and the annual revenue raised for the support of these missionaries had reached, that year the large sum of $25,000. The Methodists in Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana did, their respective circumstances considered, about as well. The effective work of the same kind done by the Baptists did not, perhaps, fall a whit behind that of their Methodist brethren, while the Presbyterians, Episcopalians, and other Protestant churches did less, in the aggregate, only because they were weaker numerically and financially. Eternity alone will disclose in full the grand results of these heroic Christian labors by the devoted men and women of the South.

You now have before you the educationary agencies brought to bear upon the negroes in the days of slavery. The education thus imparted was not an education of books, taught in ordinary schools, under regularly-employed teachers. Large numbers of the best men of the South believed that this latter kind of education ought to have been superadded. We did not believe that any man ought to be denied intelligent, unaided access to the sacred Scriptures, out of which he must at the final day be judged, or to the statutes of the State to which he was held amenable; but views of public policy and of what, in my opinion, it was erroneously believed the public safety demanded, prevailed, and the education of books was withheld. The education, however, which was imparted was an education of habits of industry, of habits of obedient subordination, of habits of reverence for authority, human and Divine. Its fruits have been seen in a hundred forms. They are seen in the evident fact that the negroes, as a race, were far advanced in the arts of civilization during slavery—in the fact that considerable numbers of the men had become good farmers, good carpenters, good shoemakers, good blacksmiths, good tailors, good artisans, in short, in most of the ordinary branches of useful industry; and in the fact that many of the women had become first-class cooks, seamstresses, house servants, laundry women, etc. It was seen, further, that large numbers of them had become members of the various Christian churches; and notwithstanding their defective views of morals in some particulars, considerable numbers of these church members were orderly in their walk and gave unmistakable evidence of genuine piety. The most striking evidence, however, of the good results of the *ante-bellum* educationary methods pursued in respect to the negro was furnished during the late civil war. When the South was largely overrun by a hostile soldiery, when every able-bodied white man of that section had been hurried to the front, when none were left for the protection of our women and children but mere boys and infirm old men, our slaves cultivated our fields, protected our property, and stood by our families in their helpless condition, thus becoming an element of strength instead of weakness, of security rather than danger. History nowhere furnishes a more striking proof of the effectiveness of the methods of education pursued toward a people.

I have sometimes been asked by my Northern friends if the slaveholders of the South, in peaceful and quiet times, did not occasionally feel qualms of conscience in respect to their connection with the institution. I answer that we did not. We inherited the institution of slavery and could not have got rid of it if we had desired. We saw it protected in the fundamental law; and when we opened our Bibles we read in the Old Testament that God himself commanded his chosen people to make slaves of the heathen captured in war and to transmit them as an inheritance to their children; and when we turned to the New we saw that our Saviour did not condemn the slavery by which he was surrounded; and that those left by him to propagate the religion which he came more fully to expound, left on record rules for the government of both master and slave (for so I translate *doulos*), in their intercourse with each other, without uttering a word of condemnation. I do not say that we were right in these views, for I do not propose to re-open the argument upon a subject now forever settled practically. I simply affirm that we were honest. We should not be worthy of the respect of honest men if we had not been. Whether slavery was right or wrong, the slaveholder who stood in his lot, doing his duty as he saw it, ought to stand acquitted before men, as I am assured he does in the high court above.

I have already said enough, perhaps too much, upon the first stage of the progress of the negroes of the South. I come now to speak of the new era which has dawned upon us. The four long years of fratricidal slaughter, which had filled the whole land with blood and every house with mourning, were at length ended, and with them slavery was also at an end. No road could have conducted to this result but that which led through blood and fire. But the result was reached. The doom of the institution was sealed, and "*tekel*" was written upon it. It soon began to seem as if it had but run the brief career intended for it in the beginning. Providence, like prophecy, is a thousand-fold better interpreted as we look back upon it in the past than when we attempt to scan its future purposings. Men, who had hitherto looked upon the institution of slavery as intended by the Divine Mind to be perpetual, soon began to suspect that the purpose was to make it simply disciplinary from the beginning. To trace this surmise from the stage of the conjectural till it ripened into firm conviction in the minds of many of our best thinkers, would constitute a pleasing psychological study; but the work before me is practical, and it will be far more profitable and instructive, perhaps, to trace the difficulties through which the white people of the South had to pass before they had obtained their full consent for the negro to go forward from the education of habits, of kindly influence and of oral methods to the higher education of books and of whatever is opened up to the mind therein; and this I shall now attempt to do.

It will be recollected that under the reconstruction policy of President Johnson, the principal thing required of the Southern States, in order to their restoration of their former relations to the federal government, was to call conventions and formally acquiesce in the abolition of slavery. The right to frame their own fundamental law as to other particulars, and to fashion their own institutions, was fully conceded. Outsiders are but poorly prepared to appreciate the great hardship of acceding to the condition in respect to the abolition of slavery. It required Southern men to give up the firm conviction of their minds—a conviction which had become a part of their religious faith—that slavery was a Divine institution and intended to be perpetual. It involved the sacrifice of property which had always been protected by the sacred guaranties of the Constitution, and which, in many cases, constituted the accumulations of a lifetime. It was the passing from affluence to poverty, from a life of ease and plenty to a life of privation and hardship; from honor, as it appeared in the eyes of many, to dishonor. The people, however, rose to the requirements of the emergency, and the sacrifice was made with cheerfulness and resignation. The Southern States generally called conventions, as required, and made the change in the fundamental law which was demanded.

This reconstruction, which, at the time, was considered a finality, was hardly consummated before it was followed by the Congressional plan which contained much harder exactions. The new reconstruction set aside all that was done under the presidential plan, established temporary military governments, enfranchised the recently-liberated slaves and disfranchised perhaps a third of the white citizens, including large numbers of the best men among us, required the calling of new conventions the delegates to which were to be chosen by the constituency created under the act forming the plan, while the conventions thus to be called were notified in advance that, as a condition precedent to the exercise of future self-government, they must put all the changes above set forth into the fundamental law. The hardness of these terms which were clearly extra-constitutional and which rested for their validity solely upon the rights of the conqueror, was intensified by the fact that men from the States recently hostile to us—not liberal, cultivated gentlemen like those before me—but, in many cases, very bad men came down among us and took control of the newly-created political neophytes for the purpose of using them to promote their own selfish ends. I do not refer to these things in any spirit of bitterness; for whatever of bitterness I may have felt, thank God, has long since given way to a better state of feeling. I refer to them simply from their necessary connection with my subject. Now I put this question to the intelligent audience before me. Is it surprising that among a broad-spirited people, a people that had gloried in their freedom, hot-headed men were to be found, who, in their desperation, were driven to acts of violence? There were such acts; but their number and atrocity have been magnified a thousand-fold. Is it surprising that the feeling of bitterness toward the authors of this new plan of civil re-habilitation should have been transferred, to some extent, to the people whom the plan suddenly lifted from the condition of slavery to the condition not only of voters but of legislators and office-holders? It is very plain to all, now that the passions of the times have to a large extent subsided, that mistakes, grievous mistakes, were made. Candid northern men will now admit that the bestowal of the full rights of citizenship upon a people, ninety-nine out of every one hundred of whom were wholly illiterate, whose habits of subordination, however valuable they may have been in a state of slavery, constituted but a poor preparation for the exercise of the functions of freemen, was badly judged and entirely premature. It was a hazardous experiment and was relieved from fatal results, perhaps, only by the kindly feeling between the white and colored races, still subsisting to a considerable extent, which had been engendered and nutured in the days of slavery. I know that the problem before the people of the North was a very difficult one, and that some allowance ought to be made on that account. I know, further, that it is but candid to admit that the hardness of the terms finally imposed upon the people of the South grew partly out of certain legislation, which was ill-judged and to some extent illiberal to the freedmen, by the State governments brought into existence under the presidential plan. It was further thought by northern men that the exercise of the right of suffrage was itself to some extent educational, and that the possession of the right was necessary to the freedmen in order to self-protection. I can readily understand how patriotic men, with inadequate views of the condition and character of the freedmen, and with minds, perhaps, insensibly, under bias, might have been led into the mistakes thus committed.

The conventions provided for in this second reconstruction assembled and did their work, and this work was universally ratified by the constituencies created for that purpose. All of the constitutions thus formed required the establishment of public schools, free to all the children irrespective of race. Legislatures were soon convened which passed laws for carrying this requirement into effect. There were great difficulties in the way of enacting and sustaining these laws and of putting them into successful operation, some of which you will be able, to some extent, to understand when I state them briefly.

It was known, in a general way, and universally felt that the destructtion of property, during the war, had been immense. The exact losses, however, were not, at that time, known. The census of 1870 fully revealed them by showing that the aggregate value of all property in the fifteen former slave States had been reduced, in the preceding decade, to three-fifths of its entire amount, while the same reduction in the eight cotton States was shown to be to about three-eighths. The effect, on the public mind, of these immense losses, which was rather increased than diminished by their vagueness, stood in the way of obtaining appropriations for any purpose.

In the next place, our people knew nothing of the benefits of public schools and of their immense superiority in a hundred particulars, when adequately supported and wisely administered, to the best-managed private schools. From the beginning, the latter has been the only educational agencies known to our people, the different States having done nothing for the education of the masses except to raise funds, from time to time, for the education of the poor. This mode of educating our children had, therefore, throughout all the past, been so thoroughly identified with all our usages as to have become, seemingly, almost an essential part of our social life. You will readily understand, then, how the difficulty of obtaining appropriations of money was enhanced when these appropriations were asked for a measure which was not only opposed to long-standing usage, but which in the popular mind was of very questionable utility.

I might mention as additional difficulties the manner in which the new constitutions were put upón us, the fact that all the property and nearly all the intelligence belonged to the opponents of the new educational policy, and the further fact that more than half of the children to be provided for were children of parents owning nothing that could be taxed.

Great as were these difficulties, there were among us those who endeavored to take a philosophic, statesman-like view of the situation. We saw that the organic law could be changed again only by the new constituencies that had been created—a fact that rendered change hopeless. It thus seemed clear that no steps would be taken backward. Those newly invested with all the rights of full citizenship were evidently destined to the perpetual enjoyment of these rights. We then began to consider how we could render the state of things by which we were surrounded more tolerable. We undertook to examine for ourselves the new school policy which had been inaugurated. We saw that by the superintendency, State and county, which is created, public attention would be turned to the subject of education, and thus a much wider interest would be awakened, much more thorough work would be done, and that this work would be done much more economically. We found out, further, that poor as we were, the best way to add to our wealth was to increase the number of educated, intelligent producers. We began, further, to ask ourselves such questions as these: Shall the million and a half of colored children of school age, destined hereafter to wield influence as citizens, be permitted to grow up in hopeless illiteracy? Shall the one-third part of the white school population, children of parents now very nearly as poor as the freedmen, be left to the same fate? Would not our institutions thereby be imperilled? Can free government exist at all with constituencies in proportions so large, debased, and illiterate? Some of us, in calmly considering the arguments hinted at, and in seeking to find answers to the questions propounded, came to the conclusion that what had been done by our conventions in respect to the school policy had been wisely done. The conviction became very deep with us that, in the altered condition of our people, the only hope left us was to do all that could be done towards elevating the masses, irrespective of race; and this conviction we promptly followed out in earnest action. We went before the people and sought by tongue and pen to impress upon them the new views which had taken possession of our own minds. The results were marked. With the fundamental law on our side, we succeeded in keeping alive the feeble systems that had been inaugurated, systems making no discrimination as to race. We not only kept them alive, but we succeeded in continually making small additions to their efficiency. By these means we continued to receive accessions to our strength, till at the end of the first decade after the second reconstruction, when new conventions were called, in which the old element of our population had full and entire sway, the public-school policy was re-incorporated in the new constitutions, and these new constitutions were ratified by overwhelming majorities.

The adoption of these constitutions marks the era of the admission of the negro, with the free consent of the white race, to the full rights of citizenship, including the right to free education. The great moral revolution, which had been in progress for nearly two decades, was now fully accomplished. I have endeavored to show you the difficulties through which it was necessary to pass before this end could be reached. It only remains now for me to speak of educational results—of what has been actually accomplished. I may state, then, that we have made a brave beginning. While what we have done may not be anything to boast of itself, yet, considered in the light of the surroundings, we are not ashamed of it. We have given to the negro in our constitutions and in our statutes equal educational rights. We have sought, in administering these statutes, to hold the balance evenly. I can say for myself that there is nothing in my official career of which I am prouder than the universal recognition of the truth of this statement in respect to my own administration by my colored friends in Georgia. Large numbers of our colored people have learned to read and to write and to make easy calculations: They have, moreover, been taught something of the history of this great country, and of the geography of this and other lands, and of the structure of the English language. In our cities, our schools are kept up from eight to ten months of the year; but in country places, the terms are necessarily short, being only from three to five months. What we do however, for one race, the same we do for the other. I had hoped to give you full statistics of the work, and to this end corresponded with the superintendents of the fifteen former slave States, and also with the honored superintendent of the District of Columbia; but in this I am, to some extent, disappointed. Some furnished me full reports, some partial; others estimated, the enrolment of the races, in the last-named cases, not having been kept separate. I select a few of the first, and give the figures:

In Virginia, beginning with the year 1871, the colored enrolment for successive years was as follows: 38,554, 46,736, 47,169, 52,086, 54,941, 62,178, 65,043, 61,772, 35,768. In South Carolina the same enrolment from 1870 has been, 15,894, 33,834, 38,635, 46,535, 56,249, 63,415, 70,802, 55,952, 62,120, 64,095. In Georgia, beginning in 1871 and omitting 1872, when there were no public schools, the same record reads, 6,664, 19,755, 42,374, 50,358, 57,987, 62,330, 72,655 while in Mississippi, beginning with 1875, the same figures were, 89,813, 90,178, 104,777, 111,796. The only year for which my correspondence enables me to present the grand aggregate for the entire South was the year 1878. The attendance for this year foots up the astonishing sum of 738,164, the reports being accurate for all the States except Arkansas, Florida, and Louisiana, in which, as already stated, careful estimates were made. When confronted by a record like the foregoing, achieved in the midst of the difficulties that beset us on every side, as a friend of the colored race I thank God and take courage!

You desire, doubtless, to hear something now in respect to the higher education. In regard to this, I can give but few facts. Such as they are, I present them almost in the very words of my correspondents.

The State of Maryland appropriates $2,000 per annum for the support of a normal school for the training of colored teachers.

Virginia sets apart $10,000 per annum out of the proceeds of the land scrip donated by Congress for the support of the school at Hampton.

Claflin University, now united with the Colored Agricultural College, and located at Orangeburg, receives from the State of South Carolina $7,500 per annum.

Georgia pays out of her Treasury to Atlanta University $8,000 a year, in discharge of the equitable claim of the colored people to participation in the land scrip fund.

The average expenditure of the State of Mississippi upon the higher institutions for the education of the negro is about $10,000 per annum.

The new constitution of Louisiana, adopted in 1879, provides that the General Assembly shall establish in New Orlearns a university for the education of persons of color, and make an annual appropriation for its support of not less than $5,000, nor more than $10,000.

Missouri appropriates $5,000 per annum to the Lincoln Institute, a school for the training of colored teachers.

In addition to what has been done by the States, very large sums have been expended by the American Missionary Society, the Freed-man's Aid Society, the Baptist Home Missionary Society, and other charitable and religious associations of the Northern States, for founding and sustaining higher institutions of learning for colored youth. I have not the facts before me which would enable me to go into details as to what has been accomplished by all these agencies. I know that many of these institutions are doing valuable work. I have myself witnessed examinations in Atlanta University upon the higher branches of study which were creditable alike to both pupils and instructors; and I am in frequent receipt of letters from colored men and women which, in respect to orthography, punctuation, construction of sentences, and the other requirements of ordinary epistolary writing, would compare favorably with other writings of that class. I am satisfied that the colored race, through the agency of these higher institutions, is making decided progress.

I have now finished the work of this hour. I have sought to trace the progress of the colored race from the state of barbarism in which they reached these shores to their present greatly-elevated and improved condition. I have endeavored to point out the various agencies that contributed to their advancement even when in a state of slavery. I have tried to place in a clear light the almost superhuman difficulties which had to be encountered and removed in bringing them through the recent stages of their progress, and I have stated honestly and fairly what progress has actually been made. Whether they shall ever be prepared, in mass, for the intelligent, efficient, satisfactory discharge of the functions of citizenship is a question. I believe they *will*, in spite of the mistakes that have been committed, if the States, the general government and the various Christian churches shall do their full duty in the matter. That overruling Providence which has shaped the events of the past will not abandon them, or us, if we act like true men and Christians. In view of the mode of their introduction among us, and of the condition in which they were so long kept by laws sanctioned by the representatives of the entire people, and of the manner in which their emancipation was effected, we of the South believe that the duty of providing the means of preparing them for citizenship belongs to the whole country. We ourselves, however, have a duty to perform which we do not intend to shirk. I think I can speak for the entire South, when I say that we are determined to stand by all that has been done. They have been declared free: to this we most heartily consent. They have been admitted to all the rights of citizenship: in this we acquiesce. Our State constitutions and our laws have declared that they shall be educated: to bring about this result we will do all that in us lies.

Adjourned until Thursday morning.

THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 15, 1880.

The Association was opened with prayer by **Dr. James McCosh**, of Princeton, N. J.

T: W. **Bicknell**, of Massachusetts, made the following report from the Committee on the

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

Mr. Bicknell read a paper on this subject before the Department of School Superintendence at a called meeting held in Washington, in February, 1880, which was discussed by W: T. **Harris**, J. P. **Wickersham**, H. S. **Tarbell**, J. H. **Smart**, A. P. **Marble**, and others. The paper with its recommendations was referred to a select committee consisting of J. H. **Smart** and H. S. **Tarbell**, of Indiana, D. B. **Hagar** and T: W. **Bicknell**, of Massachusetts, J. P. **Wickersham**, of Pennsylvania, M. A. **Newell** and H: E. **Shepherd**, of Maryland, **Aaron Gove**, of Colorado, J. **Ormond Wilson**, of the District of Columbia, I. N. **Carleton**, of Connecticut, and G. J. **Orr**, of Georgia, with instructions to prepare a plan of organization and report it to the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association at their next meeting at Chautauqua, in July. The following report was submitted to the Board on July 14, and after discussion was unanimously approved and referred to the General Association for adoption.

REPORT.

The Committee appointed by the Department of Superintendence at its meeting at Washington, D. C., February, 1880, to devise a plan for the organization of a National Council of Education, in connection with and a part of the National Educational Association, have attended to the duties assigned them, and respectfully submit the following report. Your committee recommend, —

First: That a Council of Education be created within this Association, to consist of a membership of fifty-one persons, unless otherwise ordered by a two-third vote of the Council, and approved by the Board of Directors.

Second: That the members at the first election of the Council shall be chosen from the membership of the Association as follows: Three members shall be elected by each of the five departments of the Association; *viz.*, from the *Elementary, Higher, Superintendence, Normal,* and *Industrial Departments,* respectively, making fifteen members. Twelve additional members shall be elected by the *Directors of the Association;* and twenty-four additional members shall be elected by the *twenty-seven members of the Council thus elected,* making a total of fifty-one members.

Third: That after the first election the several departments before mentioned, shall elect biennially one member, the Directors shall annually elect two members, and the Council shall annually elect four members of the Council, who shall hold office for six years, or until their successors are qualified.

Fourth: That after the first election by the several departments and the directors of the Association, the 27 members thus chosen shall organize by the election of temporary officers, and shall make and adopt a constitution and by-laws, but shall transact no further business before they have elected a number of members sufficient to make a total of fifty-one members, after which a permanent organization shall be made. Until the adoption of a constitution and by-laws, fifteen members shall constitute a quorum.

Fifth: That the constitution shall provide for the division of the members into seven classes, shall determine the length of service of the 51 members chosen by the first election, and shall provide that if any Department or the Board of Directors shall fail for any reason to fill its quota, that the vacancy may be filled by the Council.

Sixth: That in case of the failure of a member to attend the meetings for two consecutive years, the membership shall be vacant, unless the member shall be excused by a two-third vote of the Council. Vacancies caused by such non-attendance, or by death, shall be filled by the Council.

Seventh: That no State shall be entitled to more than eight members in the Council. That no person shall be eligible to membership who is not clearly identified with educational work.

Thomas W. Bicknell, *Chair. for the Com.*

The report was unanimously adopted by the Association.

In order that all matter in reference to the Council of Education may be brought together the following subsequent action taken by the General Association, the different Departments, the Board of Directors, and the Council, are here given.

A committee of conference in reference to carrying out the recommendations of tbe report was appointed consisting of T: W. Bicknell, W: T. Harris, W: D. Henkle, Edward Brooks, J: W. Dickinson, John Eaton, Jr., J. L. Pickard, J: M. Gregory, J. H. Smart, and J: Hancock from the Board of Directors, N. A. Calkins from the Department of Elementary Schools, I. W. Andrews from the Department of Higher Instruction, W: W. Folwell from the Department of Industrial Education, Louis Soldan from the Department of Normal Schools, and A. P. Marble from the Department of School Superintendence.

This committee prepared a Constitution and a plan for the election of members, which plan was reported to the Board of Directors and the different departments. The result was that the following named persons were elected members of the Council:

By the Board of Directors—T: W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
W: T. Harris, St. Louis, Mo.
W: D. Henkle, Salem, Ohio.
J: W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass.
J: Eaton, Jr., Washington, D. C.
J: M. Gregory, Urbana, Ill.
J. H. Smart, Indianapolis, Ind.
J: Hancock, Dayton, Ohio.
G. J. Orr, Atlanta, Ga.
C. C. Rounds, Farmington, Me.
E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.
D: N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.

By the Department of Elementary Schools—N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y.
B. G. Northrop, Clinton, Conn.
A. P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.

By the Department of Higher Instruction—JAMES McCOSH, Princeton, N. J.
I. W. ANDREWS, Marietta, Ohio.
ELI T. TAPPAN, Gambier Ohio.
By the Department of Normal Schools—W: F. PHELPS, Winona, Minn.
Grace C. BIBB, Columbia, Mo.
LOUIS SOLDAN, St. Louis, Mo.
By the Department of Industrial Education—
E. E. WHITE, Lafayette, Ind.
C. O. THOMPSON, Worcester, Mass.
W: W. FOLWELL, Minneapolis, Minn.
By the Department of School Superintendence—
J. P. WICKERSHAM, Harrisburg, Pa.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Washington, D. C.
A. J. RICKOFF, Cleveland, Ohio.

The twenty-seven persons so elected were requested by J. ORMOND WILSON, President of the General Association to meet to complete the organization.

At this called meeting, July 15, JAMES McCOSH was chosen temporary chairman, and T: W. BICKNELL, secretary. The following constitution was adopted:

CONSTITUTION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

PREAMBLE. In order to consider educational questions of general interest and of public importance, and to formulate such conclusions as may be reached, the National Council of Education is organized within the National Educational Association, and adopts the following Constitution:

Art. 1. This organization shall be called the National Council of Education.

Art. 2. Any member of the Association identified with educational work is eligible to membership in the Council, and after the first election such membership shall continue for six years, except as hereinafter provided.

Art. 3. At the first election of members to this Council, the several departments,—namely, the Elementary, the Higher, the Normal, the Superintendence, and the Industrial,—shall elect three members each. The directors of the Association shall elect twelve other members, and the Council thus constituted of 27 members shall elect 24 additional members, making the total number of the Council 51 persons.

Art. 4. The term of service of the several members of the Council chosen at the first election shall be arranged by the executive committee of the Council.

Art. 5. At all subsequent elections each of the several Departments shall elect biennially one member. The Directors shall elect annually two members, and the Council shall elect annually four members, who shall hold office for six years, or until their successors are appointed.

Art. 6. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in connection with the annual meetings of the Association. If any department of the Association or the Board of Directors shall fail for any reason to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies shall be filled by the Council.

Art. 7. The Council shall hold an annual meeting in connection with the meeting of the Association, and such other meetings as may be provided for by vote of the Council.

Art. 8. If a member fail to attend the annual meetings of the Council for two consecutive years, his place shall be considered vacant, unless he be excused by a two-third vote of the Council. A vacancy caused by absence, by death, or for any other cause, shall be filled by the Council.

Art. 9. No State shall be represented by more than eight members in the Council.

Art. 10. The officers of the Council shall be a President, a Vice-President, and a secretary. An executive committee, consisting of the three officers above-named and four other members, shall be appointed, and such other committees as may from time to time be necessary. The three officers and the other members of the Executive Committee shall be elected annually, at the time and place of the annual meeting of the Association, and shall continue in office until their successors are chosen. It shall be one of the duties of the Executive Committee to make an annual report of the doings of the Association.

Art. 11. This constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting, by the unanimous consent of the members present, or by a two-third vote of the members present, in case such alteration or amendment has been proposed in writing at a previous regular meeting, and any provision may be waived, at any regular meeting, by unanimous consent.

Art. 12. By-laws not in violation of this constitution may be adopted by a two-third vote of the Council.

The meeting then proceeded to elect twenty-four additional members of the Council as required by Art. 3 of the Constitution.

Members chosen by the Council—J: D. Philbrick, Asylum Station, Mass.
Ellen Hyde, Framingham, Mass.
D. B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
S. S. Greene, Providence, R. I.
W. A. Mowry, " "
H: Barnard, Hartford, Conn.
D: N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.
Anna C. Brackett, New York, N. Y.
Edward Brooks, Millersville, Pa.
F. A. March, Easton, Pa.
M. A. Newell, Baltimore, Md.
H: A. Shepherd, " "
Daniel C. Gilman, " "
W: H. Ruffner, Richmond, Va.
H. S. Thompson, Columbia, S. C.
Edward S. Joynes, Knoxville, Tenn.
John B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, Ohio.
H. S. Tarbell, Indianapolis, Ind.

LEMUEL MOSS, Bloomington, Ind.
NEWTON BATEMAN, Galesburg, Ill.
EDWARD OLNEY, Ann Arbor, Mich.
S. R. THOMPSON, Lincoln, Neb.
A. L. CHAPIN, Beloit, Wis.
J. L. PICKARD, Iowa City, Iowa.
AARON GOVE, Denver, Colorado.

At this meeting of the Council J. ORMOND WILSON, J. H. SMART, and A. P. MARBLE was appointed a committee to nominate permanent officers, which committee reported at a called meeting at 11 A. M. Friday, July 16, the following nomination for officers:—

President—THOS. W. BICKNELL,
Vice-President—JAMES McCOSH,
Secretary—LOUIS SOLDAN,
Executive Committee—J. P. WICKERSHAM, E. E. WHITE, ANNA C. BRACKETT, and W: H. RUFFNER, the officers also to be *ex-officio* members of the Executive Committee.

The report was received and the persons named elected.

It was voted to publish a circular containing a statement of the purposes of the Council, the report of the Committee, the Constitution, and a list of members.

It was decided to hold the first meeting of the Council in connection with, but prior to the next meeting of the National Educational Association.

The Secretary read the following letter:

GERA, June 1, 1880.

To the National Educational Association of North America.
Chautauqua, New York.

Through the kindness of General JOHN EATON, with whom I am in correspondence, I have the honor, on the part of the Business Managers of the General Convention of German Teachers, which meets at Carlsruhe, Baden, in 1881, to send the heartiest greetings to the highly-esteemed National Educational Association at Chautauqua, N. Y.

Although separated by the ocean, we as educators, are united in our efforts to give to the children entrusted to our care that high moral standard which alone will produce that moral basis so necessary to the welfare and peace of nations. With this object in view we shall always be as one body.

H. MÖRLE.
Chairman of the Business Managers of the
24th General German Teachers' Association.

It was moved that a committee of five be appointed to take into consideration the propriety of taking steps to make an adequate representation of our educational products and progress at the coming United-States International Exhibition to be held in New-York City in 1883, and to submit a plan for such an effort, if they deem it best to do so at our next meeting in 1881.

On motion of J: M. GREGORY it was resolved, 1, That the National

Educational Association respectfully ask the attention of the several State Teachers' Associations of the United States to the approaching International Exposition to be held at New York in the year 1883; and urge these Associations to take such steps as they may deem proper to prepare ample and fit exhibits for such exposition. 2, That the officers of this Association be instructed to communicate the foregoing resolution to the officers of the several State Associations.

On motion the following resolutions, with preamble were adopted:

Whereas, An International Educational Congress has been called to assemble at Brussels, Belgium, August 22, 29, 1880, and whereas, a cordial invitation has come from the proper authorities to American teachers to attend it, therefore,

Resolved, That Dr. WM. T. HARRIS, of Missouri, Dr. NEWTON BATEMAN, of Illinois, Dr. D. B. HAGAR, of Massachusetts, and Dr. EDWARD BROOKS, of Pennsylvania, be appointed delegates, with power to add to their numbers, to represent the National Educational Association of the United States in said congress.

Resolved, That proper credentials be prepared by the officers of this Association and furnished the above-designated delegation together with a letter of greeting and good fellowship to the congress itself.

On motion of the Hon. JAMES H. SMART of Indiana, the following committee was appointed to prepare a report on the Educational Exhibit at New York in 1883:

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, of Massachusetts,
J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania,
J. O. WILSON, of District Columbia,
JOHN EATON, of District Columbia,
J. H. SMART, of Indiana.

Miss GRACE C. BIBB presented her credentials as a delegate from the Missouri State Teachers' Association. Messrs. JOHONNOT and WICKERSHAM invited the Association to attend the annual meeting of the State Teachers' Associations of New York and Pennsylvania, respectively, for the current year.

J: W. DICKINSON, Secretary of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts, read the following paper on the

RESULTS OF METHODS OF TEACHING.

There is a prevailing opinion existing in the minds of a certain class of educators that methods are of little importance. Many go further than this, and believe that to make our acts conform to a method is to give to them a mechanical character, which deprives them of all appearance of being the products either of genius or of free intelligence.

Such opinions are especially mischievous in our educational affairs, as they encourage educators to think little of the philosophy of education, or of those general principles on which alone can be founded either a true science or art of teaching.

Every intelligent act implies a knowledge of its end from its beginning.

All ends produced by human agency are produced by the use of some means.

Success in attaining ends depends on two things: on the use of the right means, and on using them in the right way. The way of using means or of performing our acts is called *Method.*

Those who have no definite methods to use can have no definite ends to obtain. But all teaching worthy of the name has its well-known ends to accomplish. These ends may be discovered by an analysis of any good statement of what teaching is.

Teaching has been defined to be that act which consists in presenting objects of thought to a mind so as to occasion the activity which produces knowledge and a development of the powers.

The legitimate effects of teaching upon him who is led by it to study and practise are to occasion his mind to acquire knowledge, a training of its powers, and a method of performing all mental and physical acts. These three ends may be occasioned by *teaching.* The effects of *methods* of teaching will be perceived in the character and amount of knowledge obtained, in the kind and degree of development produced, and in the nature of the method of activity acquired.

Teaching occasions knowledge, development, and method. *Methods of teaching* determine the qualities of these things. This last proposition is to be proved, and first it must be shown that a method of teaching determines the quality of knowledge obtained.

Teaching may be attempted by two methods: one is called the objective, the other the descriptive or written method. One presents to the mind of the learner whatever is to be studied and known; the other substitutes for objects of knowledge, the language by which they may be described. In the one case the kind of knowledge obtained by study would be of its true objects; in the other it might be simply of the signs of knowledge of objects, and it would be of signs only, if the objects had not at some time been presented.

A knowledge of objects may have three qualities:

First. It may be clear, or such as to enable its possessor to set the object of it clear from all other objects. It is such knowledge as is expressed by a name denoting all the qualities of an object taken together as one whole; such knowledge as the mind always obtains of an object of thought when first presented, and before its qualities have been unloosed from one another, and have become themselves the objects of special attention.

Second. Knowledge may be distinct, or such as may be expressed by propositions whose subjects name the things known, and whose predicates affirm of them their qualities. Distinct knowledge is obtained by an analysis which turns our attention from an object viewed as a whole, to its individual qualities or elements. After such mental processes have been experienced, the mind is prepared to describe its knowledge by the use of language which names not only the things known, but names, also, whatever belongs to them.

Third. Knowledge may not only be clear and distinct, but it may also be comprehensive. Comprehensive knowledge is of classes, and therefore is general and abstract. Clear knowledge is of individuals considered as wholes; distinct knowledge is of individuals considered to be made up of properties or elements, while comprehensive knowledge is of groups of individuals or of classes, and is expressed by definitions which affirm what qualities or attributes are common to every individual of the class defined.

The quality of the knowledge obtained by study in school will be clear or distinct or comprehensive in proportion to the kind and degree of activity the mind of the pupil is led to exert by the method of teaching employed.

The only occasion for genuine and complete knowledge of new objects is the presence of the objects themselves.

Let it be remembered that the word "object" is used in this discussion to mean anything of which the mind may be conscious. It includes in its signification all manner of subjective as well as objective objects. It names any state of mind, or product of a state, which may be brought before the mind for its consideration, with no less propriety than it names a material thing.

After a knowledge of objects has been once obtained, and proper signs associated with it, the knowledge may be reproduced through the use of its signs, but its first appearance in the mind must, in all cases, depend on the relations objects of knowledge are made to hold to the knowing mind.

No teacher who has had a successful experience in teaching, or who has made a successful study of the way in which the mind acquires its knowledge, will be likely to deny the truth of this statement, nor will he neglect to observe it in his teaching.

But great mistakes are sometimes made by those who think they are observing this first principle of true teaching; for in teaching, models and pictures are too frequently substituted for the objects themselves. This substitution is sometimes necessary, but whenever it is made, the things represented are not in themselves taught. Only so far as illustrations of things are the things themselves, can they occasion adequate and complete ideas. A picture may represent the color, form, and size of a natural object, but it cannot represent its structure and functions, or any of its secondary qualities.

Children are indeed interested in observing visible representations of things. They learn to describe them with facility, and they not unfrequently deceive themselves and others into the belief that they have correct and adequate notions of the things represented. But when they are put to the test it is generally found that the objects of their thoughts are, to a degree, creations of their own imaginations rather than realities known through observation.

Teaching has for its object new truth. Illustrations by pictures and models may occasion true ideas of some of their relations, but they can never fully present the objects they are intended to represent.

Illustrated books for elementary lessons in language and in natural history now abound, and they are better occasions for first ideas than are words; but no teacher of the elements of natural science, who has been well taught himself, or who knows the laws that control the mind in its acquisition of knowledge, will ever accept a picture of a thing as a substitute for the thing itself. I believe that our teaching is now threatened with a danger arising from an unphilosophical use of illustrations, by which the mind of the learner is prevented from coming in contact with the true object of his knowledge.

If words only are employed either no idea at all will be suggested, or they will be those of some other mind, than the mind of the learner, has invented and described, and there may not be anything in nature corresponding to them.

From what has been said, we may learn that methods of teaching determine the kind and amount of knowledge communicated or occasioned. Another result produced by methods of teaching relates to the character of the training acquired by the mental powers through their exercise in learning. In describing this result it may be well to show, first, what right mental training is, and second, how it is to be secured. Whenever the mind exerts its powers in a right manner upon appropriate objects of thought, it becomes conscious of two results: one result is the possession of new knowledge; the other is an increased facility in the exercise of the powers by whose activity knowledge is acquired. The facility itself is called mental culture, or mental training.

The faculties are trained by their right use, and the kind and amount of training produced will depend upon the kind and amount of use to which they are subjected. One kind of use will give the ability to produce effects, the other will give an increased capacity for receiving effects. This statement expresses a most important truth for teachers to observe, and should be fully understood.

Whenever the powers of the mind discover a truth or solve a problem by an activity whose source is found in the powers themselves, they are called active powers.

The powers are called passive when their activity consists in simply comprehending the truth other minds have discovered and explained, or in understanding the solution of problems other minds have given.

The mind exerts its active power whenever the objects of its activity are brought into its presence for observation or for reflection. It exerts its passive power whenever it is engaged in learning, through the medium of language, the knowledge other minds have obtained.

That method of teaching which presents to the learner whatever is to be studied and known, and simply directs his mind to an orderly plan of study, will cultivate active power. Assigning lessons to be learned from books, or communicating knowledge by explanations in the form of lectures, will cultivate the passive powers only.

The difference in the results of the two methods is most marked. The one trains the pupil to invent his own ideas of things and to think his own thoughts. The other prepares him to understand, it may be, what others have done, but it gives him no power to do anything by an independent exertion of his own power.

Ability to use language is acquired by using it, to solve problems by solving them, and to perform any physical or mental or moral act by performing it. A law of the faculties forbids the acquisition to be made in any other way. The intelligent teacher knows this, and so from the first he puts his pupils to performing those acts that he would have them acquire the power of performing. If be wishes to train his pupils to read, he does not waste his strength and theirs in teaching and requiring to be learned the letters of the alphabet, or the elementary sounds they represent, or spelling, but he puts them to performing those acts that constitute reading. A literal and persistent application of this plan has led to the marked success some modern teachers have experienced in teaching reading. A similar success would be attained in all forms of school-work if the same principle of teaching should be made universal.

Mental training is dependent not only on a right method of activity, but on the degree of it. I am not sure that serious mistakes are not now made in attempting to make school-work entirely easy as well as absolutely delightful. It may not be wise to compel the pupil to grope in the dark for results that a small amount of well-directed labor would easily produce, nor to add that severity to his labor which will make it a disagreeable task for him to perform, but it must not be forgotten by those who are engaged in training the human mind, that an earnest and prolonged activity is the only price that will purchase a vigorous development. A consciousness of such activity and of the good results associated with it is the source of a higher joy than is experienced in mere amusement. As the mind acquires strength only by an exertion of its own power, it must not be relieved from hard and independent labor by any attempt on the part of the teacher to take the burden of work upon himself. He must not attempt to think and speak for his pupils, nor to consider his work is skilfully done, when he has made easy, by explanations, whatever is assigned to be performed.

The use of such a method may make cheerful work in the school-room, but when the results are known, it will be found that the minds of those who have been subjected to the method have lost their active power for want of exercise, and that they have in its place simply the capacity to receive information, and to imitate what they see done by others. That method of instruction is faulty which attempts to amuse the mind into the possession of a knowledge of what is real, and into a state in which it can control itself by an independent exertion of its own strength. The active powers of the mind will be led into a proper exercise when the teacher presents to them the objects of study, and does nothing more than direct them to a methodical and vigorous activity in producing required results. The passive powers will be properly exercised in receiving the effects produced by the presence of whatever demands attention, and in comprehending the directions given for the proper exercise of active power. Good teaching prepares the pupil for solitary work, and puts into his posession the means of study, that is the plan of study, the end to be attained, and then leaves him to use the means in accordance with the plan. If the mind is directed to a good manner of acting, then the degree of energy it exerts will determine the amount of training it will receive, and the amount of reliable knowledge it will obtain.

The third result produced by a method of teaching is found in the method of thinking or study it communicates. Not much knowledge or mental discipline can be obtained by the longest courses of study now taught in the schools, but a good method of teaching will always present a good plan of study, and occasion that discipline of mind which will enable it to use the plan in the further pursuit of knowledge after the pupil has left his school. A plan of study should be constructed in accordance with two principles, one of which is found in the nature of knowledge, the other in the nature of the mind. Knowledge is of two kinds, elementary and scientific. We obtain elementary knowledge when we observe things, and know them and their qualities as mere existences of facts. This is the kind of knowledge young minds possess. They call things by their names, and describe their qualities, but they never say much of causes or of classes.

After some years of study of individual objects for facts pertaining to them, the student will gradually come to know that they have common qualities by means of which they may be arranged in classes. He also begins to understand the causes of the phenomena he has observed, and so comes into possession of general truth. This is scientific knowledge. The two kinds of knowledge bear certain fixed relations to each other.

First. Elementary knowledge must exist before scientific knowledge is possible.

Second. The one must be obtained through observation, the other through reflection.

Third. Elementary knowledge should be learned not in a miscellaneous order, as is generally the case, but in the order in which it will be used in the study of the sciences.

There has been up to this time almost no attempt made by elementary teachers to teach facts with special reference to the sciences that are to be built of them. This failure has confused our elementary teaching, and made it, in its relations to any definite results, both aimless and barren. To prevent this the elementary teacher must bear constantly in mind that the immediate ends to be secured by his young learners are a well-arranged knowledge of facts, and a right training of the observing powers, with all that is implied in these results. Both the kind of knowledge to be learned and its arrangement are to be determined by the demands which will be made upon them in scientific study. The *training* to which the observing powers should be subjected is to be inferred from a knowledge of their modes of activity and the conditions of their development. The necessity of storing the young mind with an orderly arrangement of facts, that have been obtained by a systematic and thorough observation of their objects, renders a philosophical method of teaching and study imperative.

A clear and distinct knowledge of individuals finds its value in the relation it holds to what is universally true, and general truths furnish us with the only data from which we may derive the rules of conduct that direct our lives. The mistakes that men make in forming their notions of general truth are largely due to a loose and limited observation of facts. If one is subjected to a wrong method of observing the present, he must fail in his judgments of the future, and be compelled to live an unproductive, disappointed life.

The result of methods of teaching will be modified by the spirit with which they are applied. If the teacher applies his teaching with sole reference to some immediate good, such as is found in knowledge or in anything that cannot be joined to the mind as a part of itself, then the highest and best ends of teaching will not be obtained.

To teach a child to read to the end that he may read, is as full of folly as to train him to keep still to the end that he may be quiet. Reading and quietness may become means to some good end, but they should never be exalted into the place of ends themselves. Teachers, and especially young teachers, are often in danger of attending too exclusively to the formalities of their work, and too little to the purposes for which they labor.

A method of teaching may be so applied as to inform the mind, and yet leave it without the power of an independent pursuit of the truth or of an independent use of it after it has been found. A method of school government may be so administered as to produce conformity to established rules of conduct, and at the same time to stimulate into a vigorous growth the malevolent affections, and even to create the very spirit of disobedience. Methods of teaching and of school government, without a knowledge and a constant reference to the relations they hold to the power of self-control they are designed to occasion, will be likely to degenerate into a meaningless if not a mischievous formality.

Comenius, John Locke, and Pestalozzi are classed among the most famous educators of modern times; but they owe their fame not so much to the fact that they invented new methods of teaching, or established new educational institutions, as to the fact that they called the attention of the people to the true end of education,—the harmonious development of all the faculties of man. A want of method and of the true spirit of teaching will unfit the pupil of the lower schools for successful work in the schools above, and rob the scientific student of that general knowledge, and that complete development of his powers, which fit a man for a successful life. Thus we find that the legitimate results of a good method of teaching are real knowledge, a trained mind, and a good method of exerting its active power. Some phases of our common-school work have been sensibly improved during the past few years. Doubtless some forms of teaching have been introduced that will not stand the test of time. Yet something will be saved, and we shall find that progress has been made.

What we now need is some wise man to take hold of our unsystematized elementary work, and organize it with reference to the relations different topics of elementary knowledge hold to one another, and to the relations they all hold to the sciences. We need also to have our methods of teaching conform more fully to the laws of mental activity and mental growth. And, finally, we need to have impressed upon our minds a more exalted notion of what the results of school life should be.

Details of school work are important objects of study and practice when considered in their relations to a true education, but they become contemptible when chosen as ends. The value and dignity of a method of teaching appear only when it is associated with the great end it is adapted to occasion,—the harmonious development of all the faculties of man.

Dr. W. T. HARRIS, of St. Louis, Missouri, read the following paper on

TEXT-BOOKS AND THEIR USES.

More than one hundred years ago, ROUSSEAU, in his celebrated treatis on education, which stird to revolutionary depths the thinking minds of Europe, gave utterance to the following words against text-books:—"Reading is the great misery of children. . . . The pedagogs teach children words, nothing but words, and no real knowledge. . . . Children *should* lern *nothing* by rote,—not evn LA FONTAINE'S fabls. . . . No writings ar proper for a boy, no eloquence or poetry; he has no busines with feeling or taste. . . . EMILE"—the ideal boy whose education he was describing,—"EMILE must, in his *twelfth year*, scarcely know what a book is. . . . The boy should do nothing becaus commanded to do it; nothing is good to him except what he himself recognizes as good. By your wisdom you rob him of his mother-wit; he becomes accustomd always to be led, and to be only a machine in the hands of others. To require obedience of the child means to require that when grown up he shal be credulous,—shal be made a fool of. . . . What the human mind receivs is conveyd through the senses; the senses ar the basis of the intellectual. Our feet, our hands, our eyes, first teach us filosofy."

Here we hav at once the doctrin laid down, and with it a theory of mind,—the psychological basis of the doctrin. If all our knowledge is empirical, derived from our five senses, if the mind brings nothing of itself as a contribution to knowledge, it is clear that intellectual education must be confined to the development of sense-perception on the part of the pupil,—the cultivation of the five senses, and the observation of the world by their means.

This theory of the mind, which makes sense-perception all in all, had come to France through the seductiv teachings of HUME. To HUME and his disciple ROUSSEAU is due, in a great degree, the French Revolution. HUME'S psychology had found two kinds of perceptions in the human understanding: "impressions" and "ideas." "Impressions" ar the direct effects of sensation; "ideas" the derived perceptions of reflection. "The difference between them consists in the degrees of force and livelines with which they strike upon the mind, and make their way into thought and consciousnes. Those perceptions which enter the mind with the most force and violence we may name *impressions*, and under this name include all our sensations, passions, and emotions, as they make their first appearance in the soul. . . . 'By *ideas*,' says HUME, 'I mean the faint images of these impressions in thinking and reasoning.'"

Thus, to HUME and ROUSSEAU, sensations are the primary source of truth, the highest testimony of reality, and all our thoughts, reflections, and ideas ar faint and fainter reproductions, and necessarily les and les real and tru. All generalization, according to this, is departure from truth and reality, for it sinks out of sight the vivid impressions of sense-perception. Each general idea,—such, for exampl, as hous, man, tre, water, air, matter,—stands for an infinit number of possibl sensations, and omits all reference to their special or peculiar conditions,—the differences of each from every other.

This view of the inferiority of the mental activity of thought and reflection is a very plausibl one,—it comes to us naturally.

But the maturer investigations of science do not confirm such a view. We find that mere individual things ar perishabl, that they ar continually passing away, and that they do not posses truth or substance, and ar not of an abiding character, although they giv us vivid sense-impressions. Our vivid sense-impressions relate to what is transient and variabl. Forces ar more real than things, becaus they represent the processes which survive them. The force *causes* the thing, and it *destroys* it, too. The thing is a temporary equilibrium of forces.

But forces ar not the permanent and abiding beings in this universe. Each force is fleeting, although it is more substantial than things ar which it creates and destroys. But scientific reflection has discoverd that, underlying forces, there is a "persistent force," resulting from the so-cald "Correlation of Forces," which is the substance fixt and abiding. HERBERT SPENCER, in his "First Principls," calls this persistent force the "ultimate reality"; "the sole truth, which transcends experience by underlying it."

In the scale of reality, then, recent science places lowest the *things* which we lern through sense-impressions. Next come *forces*, which hav higher reality. Then comes *persistent force* as the "ultimate reality" of the physical world. *Forces* ar more real than *things*, becaus they caus them to originate and to disappear. The caus is more real than the effect; that which annuls or destroys proves its greater reality on that which it annuls or destroys. So, too, the "persistent force," which, by its energy, givs rise to all particular forces,—light, heat, electricity, magnetism, gravitation, cohesion, etc.,—possesses all the reality of all these particular forces in the aggregate, and far surpasses each one of them.

This doctrin of Realism—or of the transcendent reality of what is general or universal—is the most wonderful outcome of the thinking mind in modern natural science. It is the most startling phenomenon in the history of human thought since the great upheaval of Scholasticism; and, strange to say, it has in it many consequences which ar of a similar nature to those that followed the great mental activity of that period. The discovery of the new world, the assertion of the right of individual judgment, the discovery of gunpowder, and the art of printing, the revival of lerning, the Copernican system, the separation of Church and State, the foundation of the great universities, then later of the common school, all these things, and many more, flowd directly from the fermenting activity of Scholasticism,—the attempt on the part of Christendom to understand itself, and to hav an intellectual theory of the mind in man, in nature, and in God.

In Scholasticism the dominant thought was realism,—the reality of *universals*, or *genera and species*, as being a more substantial reality than the reality of mere *individual things*, which ar transient and perishabl. The soul, God, the wil, immortality, freedom, spiritual entities, wer lookt upon as in the highest sense realities.

So in our new realism of natural science we ar finding again the universal, as genus or species, to hav a higher reality than particular individuals perceivd by the senses. The senses perceiv limits and determinations,—they perceiv the "confines of being," its outermost manifestation. Reflection neglects these external results, and takes cognizance of the causal power of the proces, and thus sees many in one,—many results potentially bound up in one caus. Converging to the centr, reflection finds the highest reality a self-activ being, a living energy, the caus, of vitality in nature and itself, the highest living and conscious Being.

Realism finds principls, truth, and science. Modern nominalism, starting from the dogma so wel enunciated by HUME that sensation is the highest perception of truth, cannot consistently find reality for the soul, or God, or evn for *Force*, or Matter, or for any general idea whatever.

It is of interest, therefore, to inquire further in regard to the system of education which ROUSSEAU attackt in his "EMILE," from the standpoint of sense-perception. This interest is enchanced when we remember that ROUSSEAU's writings on nature and education inspired PESTALOZZI, and, indeed, wer adopted by him with only slight modification and addition.

After the discovery of printing, books became so cheap that peopl in moderate circumstances could own them. Hence the reading of the printed page came to be an art which all peopl needed. Especially after MARTIN LUTHER had translated the Bible out of the lerned tongues into the common speech, men sought to hav acces each for himself to this book which containd the revelation of GOD to the human race.

Thus the art of printing itself was a product of that revival of lerning which had resulted from the agitation of Scholasticism. Books wer in such demand, and wer felt on all hands to be so necessary to a rational life, that the book-makers lookt about for some method of multiplying manuscripts cheaper and more rapid than that of the scribes.

Before the art of printing, a Bible might hav cost £1,000; a set of ARISTOTLE's works, £800; a HOMER, £300. Only the rich man, or some institution, could afford to posses a book.

With the advance of the art of printing, any poor man may ern money by a day's labor to pay for a Bible.

Before printing, only the specially favord, the welthy, or the members of a monastery, or of some other institution that possest books, could read for himself any of the writings which preserv for us the wisdom of the human race. Only one of a great many could approach near enough to light his individual torch at the sacred flame of Reason, which the gift of God, or the labor of human genius, has kindld. The progress of the race in intelligence and observation was necessarily very slow.

The unaided man is a very feebl animal. If he borrows no ideas from his fellows, and receivs no hint from them of the results of the aggregate experience of the human race, he gropes about all his life, neither observing much nor thinking much. It is only when, by intercommunication and education, each man is made recipient of the fruits of the experiences of all, that the miraculous greatnes of human life becomes apparent. Each individual is givn, by means of education, the net results of the experience of the human race. Each rides on the shoulders of all. Each one thinks and feels over again within himself the condenst results of human thought and feeling; each man becomes a compendium of mankind, and this is the miracl of life. That all liv for each, and each livs for all, is a symbol of the mystery of vicarious atonement,—the deepest spiritual fact in human life. The measure of painful experience in life is infinitly diminisht for each man, through the fact that he may avail himself of the experience of his fellow-men, and reap the wisdom of that experience without having to pay for it by the suffering and pain which it has cost originally.

This participation in the life of the species is the means by which man, as a mere particular individual, becomes the species or genus,—the entire race. For all education means precisely this: that the individual shal grow through the experience of his fellows. He shal lern what they hav observd with their senses, and thus increas his own insignificant powers of observation, by adding to himself the fruits of the observation of all men. The great geniuses of observation,—the Humboldts, Cuviers, Agassizs, Leuwenhœcks, Virchows, Lyells, Galileos, Herschels, Darwins,—these, and their like, shal se and observ for him as much as for themselvs. Without repeating their drudgery, he shal enter into the fruition of their labors by means of the instrument of intercommunication, language, and its preservation by writtn or printed words. Not only the observers of nature, but the observers of the history of man, ar stil more availabl to the individual. There ar the great artists, poets, and literary men who hav possest the genius to probe the human heart, and to reveal it in the literature of the race,—Homer, Sophocles, Dante, Shakespeare, Gœthe, Phidias, Praxiteles, Michael Angelo, Raphael, Beethoven, and Richard Wagner. What revelations of ourselvs to each of us may we find in their inspirations! The nature of each man is found fully reveald only in the history of his entire species,—the possibilities of each man become realities first in all men, and then by education,—the proces of seeing and lerning to se this revelation of our deepest innermost selvs in the history of mankind, and its utterance by the gifted men of genius,—by this proces of education we realize again in the individual what has been livd by the race.

Not only the artists and literary men hav reveald the human race; the historians hav done it; the law-makers hav put it into their codes; the political leaders hav utterd it as watchwords of the onward movement of humanity.

Thus man reinforces himself by the sense-perception of his fellow-men, seeing all places, investigating the near and the far, making present to his senses all that is and has been, by means of the recorded observations of his fellows. Thus, too, he comes to know human nature as reveald in human history, its passions and aspirations, its defeats and sorrows, its triumphs and joys. Besides these immediate aspects of the world of nature and of man, in the seeing of which he uses the senses of all mankind, there is the realm of reflection, wherein he makes the labor of his fellow-men stil more useful to him.

The thought and generalization of the race is evn more availabl for the individual man than is the sense-experience or the emotional experience. Reflection, which, as we hav seen, devotes itself to the task of finding the permanent under the variabl, the *deeper reality* under the transient phenomena visibl to the senses,—reflection creates what is by far the most valuabl for the education of the individual man. Reflection on the nature of the wil has, in the course of human history, summd up the net result of human deeds and actions in a code of morals. In a dozen sentences it sums up the experience of the race,—thou shalt not do this deed, nor that other deed, becaus it wil render impossibl the participation of the individual in the life and experience and deeds of his fellow-men, and hence would reduce man to a brute, so far forth as this and such deeds ar practist. Generalizing theoretically, reflection has discoverd the laws of nature, and made natural science; it has transcended the realm of unconscious nature, and discoverd the character of the first principl, and the course or trend of the world, as the revelation of a conscious personal Creator.

Now it is evidently a great mistake—a heresy in education—to suppose that the unaided individual can develop into a rational being except through participation in the labors of the human race. It is a heresy in education to suppose that education is anything else than this initiation of the individual into the wisdom which mankind has accumulated.

The fact that what is valuabl and substantial in human experience is preservd for us, and made availabl for each and all by the printed page, indicates at once the central object of the school. The school shal teach the youth how to master the printed page, and how to enter into the fruition of the moral and intellectual treasures of civilization.

The text-book has been invented as the most important instrument in this proces. The child shal be taught how to read. But this is not enough; he shal be taught how to understand and verify what he reads. Nor is this enough. He shal be taught *what* to read,—how to come at the valuabl books, and how to recognize them, and how to know the direction in which to look for substantial help.

Thus we hav several stages in the proces.

(*a*.) There is mere reading and writing. The youth is required only to master the art of word-making, and of representing words by writtn signs. This is chiefly a mechanical activity of the mind; mere memory of forms and sounds, mere skil of the hand and fingers.

And yet for the bright, intelligent boy or girl this small gift from the school is sufficient to start him or her on a career of self-help, and open for him the entire world of intelligence. Mere mechanical reading and writing,—who wil say that it is not far more useful and valuabl to the dul and stupid child than any other mechanical art he may ever posses?

But such mere mechanical art of reading and writing is so far inferior to the art of reading and *understanding* the printed or writtn words, that our teachers and educational critics are accustomd to pronounce it altogether useles.

(*b.*) Hence it is everywhere conceded theoretically that the school should teach how to *understand* words rather than to repeat them parrot-like, and that mere repetition without sense is a proces of dedening the mind. The school then shal find its chief function in teaching how to understand the word.

A great instrumentality in this work of the school is the clas recitation, properly conducted. According to its lowest interpretation, the clas recitation is merely the occasion on which the teacher ascertains how much of the book the pupil has memorized. According to a higher interpretation of its function, the teacher finds the recitation a place for probing the mind of the pupil, and ascertaining his power of comprehension of the lesson, correcting his distorted views, developing his expression of thought in his own language, enlarging his vocabulary of words by teaching him how to use the technical terms which human thought has set apart for the expression of accurate ideas.

The highest idea of the recitation notes, too, the greatly-stimulating effect on growing thought which arises from the fact that the pupil sees the thought of the lesson exprest variously by different pupils, each one from his own narrow view seeing some special application of the meaning of the text, and only dimly seeing, or else altogether ignoring, other fases.

But each pupil in the recitation ads to his own peculiar view the views of his fellows, and the teacher corrects and widens the view even of the text-book, and thus the pupil goes away from each recitation better prepared to get from the printed page what it contains, and to detect its inconsistencies evn, if it has any.

The true idea of the recitation, moreover, develops largely the *Method of Investigation*, which may be cald the highest method of instruction. It teaches the pupil to verify everything by his own experience. Hence, for whatever belongs to natural science, it produces experiment or exhibits specimens and illustrations. For the logical demonstration it requires the pupil to exhibit the necessary relations in his own language; for matters of history, illustrations from present life and experience. The proces of seeing the bearing of everything in the book, upon what is present in the life of the pupil and the community, is the tru method of instruction. But far the greater part of instruction relates to results of reflection, and so is to be verified by the activity of thought, and does not need ocular experiments or specimens.

It is the great emphasis which has been placed on this one side of the method of investigation that has led to placing too much stres on the so-called "oral method," and the undervaluing of text-books as instruments of school education. It has been assumed that this matter of verification, which is so important, is the only thing, and that each one may substitute original investigation entirely for verification of the results of others.

The human race has been constructing this ladder of human experience and science for more than six thousand years. If we decline to use this ladder, and try to make one for ourselvs, we shal not do much more than the first generation did, while *with* the aid of this ladder, in our school years, from six to twenty years, we may traverse and verify the entire length of this enormous period of human life.

The text-book, then, may be always regarded as an aid to the school—a most potent instrument for good—enabling the bright pupil, evn with the worst methods of instruction, to participate, by his own efforts, in the recorded experience and wisdom of mankind, helping evn the dull and stupid to some extent; under the highest method,—that of investigation—rapidly stimulating the powers of self-activity in the child, so that he becomes abl in interpreting and comprehending the results of others, and in adding new discoveries and new ideas to the aggregate product of his race.

Two objects to be obtaind in the study of the text-book thus appear: the one, the substantial or objectiv one, is the occupation of the mind with truth, with what has been tested and found essential to civilization. The other fase is the self-activity of the pupil, the element of subjectiv growth in perception and thinking. For a spiritual being, nought exists except what occupies his self-activity. He must act upon it, and make it his object. What he does not comprehend is no truth for his consciousnes. The side of self-activity of the pupil is therefore *indispensabl*, but it is not everything. Self-activity without an objectiv substantial result is a mere *formal* activity, and does not result in education in any high sense of the term.

There must be a union of *formal* and *substantial* in school education. The what to study is as important as the *how* to study. The course of study and the proper order of studies belong, therefore, to the substantial side of education, and form an object of pedagogic study quite as important as the investigation of the method of instruction.

"Text-book instruction" is the form of school instruction adopted by the deep instinct of modern society as the most direct and effectiv method of initiating the individual man into spiritual participation in the activity of his race. By it our system of instruction is best enabled to secure what is substantial without sacrificing the formal.

Adjourned to meet at eight o'clock P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association met at 8 o'clock.

Edgar A. Singer, of Philadelphia, Pa., read the following paper on

WHAT CONSTITUTES A PRACTICAL COURSE OF STUDY.

In the progress of civilization, it has come to be very generally believed that the highest welfare of the individual and of the State, demands that all the people should be educated. The opinions which prevail as to what constitutes a good education are as various as are the estimates that are put upon human life and human destiny.

In general terms, that education is the best that best fits man for the proper discharge of duty in all relations of life. In other words, he is the best educated who is the best in his family, the most successful in business, the most useful in society, the most enlightened in civil affairs, the most faithful and zealous in the performance of his moral and religious duties; and that system of education is the best which most directly tends to the development of man's faculties to insure superiority in the particulars specified.

Those who would make merely the acquisition of knowledge concerning some special subject the aim and end of study, can never insure a good education, although the mental discipline resulting from such study might have its intrinsic value. The higher and better results of all study, all true education, are their indirect influences and benefits,—results showing themselves in increased power of attention; in disciplined habits of attention; in enlarged comprehension; in quickened curiosity; in greater ability to discover mines of mental wealth hidden from the view of the untrained; and in wider and more far-reaching influence for good over others. The knowledge of *self* is the best knowledge, and the best self-knowledge is the consciousness of power in all departments of our being He who is conscious of possessing this power has the best education, no matter what his merely scholastic attainments may be, or by what means or processes or system he may have acquired them.

PRACTICAL EDUCATION.

If it were possible to know the precise future vocation of each pupil, it might be possible to determine easily what should be the special training of each. It might be possible to designate which studies should be made prominent, and which should receive but little attention. But even such a course would be practically impossible, for the reason that there can not be maintained any system of public education that will permit special separate instruction to individual pupils. The theory of the best public-school system is, that every child shall receive such discipline of mind and body, such knowledge of the elementary branches of instruction, as are requisite to render him capable of pursuing any future calling. Not that he should know any one trade, but that he should be fitted for *any trade*. Not that he shall know everything, but that he shall have useful information respecting those subjects which, as a firm broad basis, will enable him to build such superstructure as his tastes, his opportunities, or circumstances merely, may, in the future, permit.

Restricting the meaning of the term "practical education" within the limits prescribed for present purposes, let us consider what constitutes a practical education, or, rather, what a practical education must accomplish.

1. It must insure knowledge of elementary subjects. It must cultivate powers of observation, must stimulate inquiry, and must give ability to apply means to results in the common affairs and the ordinary industries of life, with as little loss of time and power as possible.

2. It must develop and confirm powers of endurance to bear the strain of unexpected and necessary demands upon the strength of the mental and the bodily system.

3. It must inculcate and establish moral principles as the basis of good habits and virtuous character.

In other words, it must require and effect the education and the systematic development of the mind, the body, the heart.

Now I am not so visionary as to suppose it possible that any scheme of education can result in the thorough accomplishment of all these ends, so as to include every individual pupil subject at any time to its operations. I know very well that circumstances over which children, nor parents, nor school authorities, have control may, and must, prevent some pupils from continuing under the influence of such system during the entire period required for its complete development.

A French writer has compared a well-arranged plan of education "to a railway system with its main line, its stations, its branches, its junctions, * * *. Just as passengers on a railway get out at different stations, so the children who, from pecuniary necessity or social position, are compelled to earn their livelihood at an early age, leave school at any point of this course, all, according to the amount of knowledge which they possess, able and fitted to take their proper place in the social stratification."

Neither do I think that the term "practical education" ought to suggest, as it too frequently does suggest, the idea of special preparation for some position of more or less responsibility in the office or the counting-room, or some place in the lower strata of the professions, but, chiefly, preparation for some trade or handicraft.

It may be accepted as a fact borne out by experience everywhere, that, during the first years of school life, the workshop can not be put in the school-room without making a very poor workshop and a very poor school. It may be possible, it *is* possible, to supplement the school by the workshop, the studio, the office, granted the necessary preparatory training.

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT.

The educator has to deal chiefly with the *mind;* and yet it is a fact, sad as it is true, that the *average* teacher knows very little of the nature of the mind and the laws of mental growth and activity. The man who would undertake to prescribe for the sick, having no knowledge of the physical organization of the patient, and no knowledge of the probable effects of the medicine prescribed, is not more of a quack than he who, utterly ignorant of the nature of the mind, assumes to direct its culture and development.

For purposes of *education,* President Hill says that the intellectual powers may be conveniently divided into three groups,—the perceptive, the imaginative, and the reflective.

The *first,* including attention and perception, relates to the direct vision of facts or truths, whether by outward or by inward sense.

The *second,* including memory and association, relates to the reproduction or near imitation of impressions previously made by direct perception. If reproduction simply, it is but memory; and if imitation, it is remembered impressions modified, or imagination, fancy, in effect.

The *third,* including reason and judgment, relates chiefly to the comparison of facts or truths perceived or remembered, to bring forth or to educe new facts, new truths.

The history of a child's intellectual faculties shows that these several powers of the mind succeed in the order indicated; and that their development can be best effected in the order of succession named:

Nature thus indicates the course of education to be pursued:—

First, attention should be given to the young child's perceptive powers, especially those of external sense.

Next, the imagination must be systematically cultivated. In learning to perceive, he will remember what he has observed, and by association and memory he will acquire knowledge.

And lastly, reason and judgment, must receive cultivation. Reasoning upon facts is the work of the mature mind, and the common-sense view requires the accumulation of facts, the acquisition of knowledge, before the processes of reasoning should be required.

PHYSICAL TRAINING.

The interdependence of mind and body does not appear to be generally appreciated, or sufficiently acknowledged. In almost every scheme of education too little attention is paid to the bodily senses and the bodily organs, the physical organization.

The cultivation of the eye, the ear, the hand, and all the other senses and organs of the body, increases to an almost unlimited extent, the occupations and the capabilities of the mind. It produces habits of exact observation, and gives to observation utility and point.

The body must have adequate powers of endurance. There must be great capacity for work, mental as well as physical, to accomplish great results in any line of occupation. There must be, not only the will that can not be appalled by any possible accumulation of details, but there must be also bodily health, bodily strength, that will permit and endure the working out of these details by dint of constant, untiring, unyielding toil.

The mind gathers impulse and force from the body, whenever the body is in high health and vigor. So, too, when the body is feeble and sickly, the mind is either checked or hampered in its impulses; or, attempting to carry such impulses to accomplishment, it breaks down altogether. Intellectual attainments are shorn of half their value when accompanied by feeble health, or when secured at the expense of physical strength. The man or woman of superior intellect, who puts forth mental powers with resolute force and determined will, requires better health and more strength to endure the strain, than any ordinary day-laborer or mechanic, or domestic or milliner. Such above all others should have tough muscles, strong sinews, and vigorous pulse, and should possess good, sound, vigorous, working, bodily health.

What then? Shall these self-evident truths be left to be discovered by our pupils after they shall have reached maturity, after they shall have learned their value from the want of health, from the absence of strength, from inability to sustain heavy drafts upon life-force made by daily occupation? Or rather, is it not the duty of those charged with the education of the young to provide for the physical as well as the mental training of the child? As there are natural, positive, ascertained laws of mental development, requiring different applications at different stages of intellectual advancement, so there are obvious, generally-known laws of bodily development, requiring varying exercises at different ages of childhood, youth, and maturity.

MORAL TRAINING.

The moral education of the young is a necessity that should, under home influences, precede, and under home influences combined with systematic, conscientious effort on the part of the teacher, form a part of that scheme of education, which, in its full application and acceptation, is intended to develop the faculties and powers of the mind and the heart of the child to fit him for future duties of life. It is true that there is not, perhaps there cannot be, any distinct line of demarcation separating intellectual from moral education. The success, the perfection of either, requires the presence of the other, and they can and do blend so fully, so harmoniously, that it is scarcely possible for either to exist independently of the other. It is well that this mutual dependence should exist, and it is of supreme importance, not only that the mutual development of the two should be encouraged, but also that it should be made a requisite in every system of education.

The mother is the child's first teacher, and home influences are the first to which the child is subject, so that, when it enters school, it has passed through and graduated from one department of its educational system; and it enters the next higher with character already beyond the formative period, so that the teacher has not a merely passive, plastic organization to mould according to her wishes, her model. She can not take this child as it comes to her, and, working upon its intellectual nature only, bring forth fruits that will reward her for her labor and perseverance, no matter how thoroughly she has been trained to her work; how deeply she has studied the child-mind, how carefully she has developed the system which she intends to adopt in its intellectual education. No matter how much energy she brings to her task, she can not, by training the intellect alone, eradicate what has already been sown, she can not destroy what has already sprung up in the mind. If what she finds is the result of the growth of right principles, she has what will be her best help, her greatest aid; but, if she finds a soil all overgrown with the weeds of idleness, fretfulness, self-will, she finds that which will impede progress, despite all her labor.

What then? Shall the teacher simply accept what is presented to her, and work upon it in the vain expectation that her efforts shall bring from all materials the same result? That she can use the same tools upon sandstone, granite, marble, and produce from all alike beautiful, polished statues? Shall she cultivate alike the thorn and the vine, and expect to gather *grapes?* And from the thistle hope to pluck figs? Or shall it be her duty, as it would be her pleasure, to endeavor to root out the weeds of evil principles and bad habits of thought and action, and sow seeds that, under her care and kindly culture, shall spring up and grow and furnish the motive-power which shall direct the pupil and the future man and woman in the paths of truth and right? Should she have for her guide a plan of education that confines all her teaching to the cultivation of mental powers, or should she have the aid of a system which will enable and require her, to the extent of her influence and opportunities, to implant in the young mind principles and sentiments that shall develop habits by and through which the highest type of human character shall be formed?

WHAT SHALL BE TAUGHT?

It is clear that, in the few years during which children attend our common schools, the number of subjects to be learned and the amount of knowledge to be acquired, can, in the best, be but limited. It is necessary, therefore, that the greatest care should be exercised in the selection of those subjects which shall be the most essential in their application to the ordinary duties of every-day life; and, at the same time, furnish discipline of mind, and knowledge of general principles, necessary in subsequent special preparation for any vocation.

Having attempted to show what constitutes a practical education, I shall now endeavor to show what constitutes a practical course of study as a means to the end, by specifying the subjects of intellectual education, the processes of physical development, and the means of moral training, having special reference to our primary and grammar schools, and to the periods of childhood and early youth, say from the age of six to the age of thirteen; leaving to the kindergarten and its many excellent methods, the training of children during the period of infancy, and to technical schools and higher institutions of learning, the completion of a course necessary to fit young men and young women for their immediate duties in life. I shall, at the same time, endeavor to keep constantly in view, as governing principles, the nature of the mind, the nature of knowledge, and the nature of instruction, that the subjects and the topics selected shall have constant reference to the condition of the mental faculties, the order in which knowledge shall be evoked, and to the manner in which facts, as the basis of knowledge, shall be presented.

The following general divisions of topics are sufficiently specific and distinctive for present purposes, although scientifically, there might be a closer classification;—the subjects, the things to be taught, would, however, under all circumstances, be the same:—

1. Object Lessons and Oral Instruction, developing into the natural sciences.
2. Language.
3. Number, developing into algebra and geometry.
4. Writing and Drawing.
5. Place and direction developing into geography with history as their complements.
6. Music.
7. Morals and Manners.
8. Physical exercises.

1. Object Lessons.—"The famous town of Man-Soul," says John Bunyan, "had five gates, in at which to come, and out at which to go. The names of these gates were:—eye-gate, ear-gate, feel-gate, nose-gate, and mouth-gate." Through these five gateways of knowledge a great many things that we know pass to our minds. It is a well-known fact that the proper exercise of any power, whether physical or mental, increases that power. Exercise of the several senses is, therefore, the true means by which the power of gaining ideas from external objects may be strengthened, and the ability to acquire knowledge increased.

It is also a well-known fact that a large proportion of young children, when they first enter school, have not learned to use their senses in such a manner as to enable them to gain accurate ideas. It becomes, then, a matter of primary importance that teachers of young children should give special attention to providing suitable means by which their pupils shall obtain the requisite exercises to produce the desired development of their powers of mind. It is an important thing to know how to observe; it is a much more important matter to be able to observe accurately.

The intention of lessons on familiar objects is not so much to give information to children, as to put them in the way of collecting information for themselves; not so much to require them *to look at* things, as to teach them how to *see* things. They are designed to enable pupils to separate and sift from the great mass of impressions which objects make on their minds, those that are most important and useful; and to give, to some extent, exercise in classifying and grouping important facts into knowledge for practical use.

They furnish, too, the basis of subsequent special study of the fundamental or elementary principles of natural history and natural philosophy, without loss of time or loss of power.

2. Language.—Language is the instrument of thought, and a medium of expressing thoughts. The objective points in this branch of study are facility and accuracy in oral and written expression of ideas crystalized into thought. This mastery of language is an element of human power and influence, and is a test, and, generally, the only test, of knowledge itself.

Such knowledge of our language as affords ability to understand it, and to use it properly as a means of expressing ideas and conveying thought, is the key to all intellectual progress. At first, the correct use of language must be considered as an art, not as a science; and it must be acquired through practice, and not through the application of theories and abstract principles.

Children generally know more than they can express in words. It is necessary, then, that there be constant effort to increase ability to crystalize knowledge into thoughts, and thoughts into words oral and written. With this ability, all knowledge is spread out openly, and the pupil, the man, or the woman, is unconfined as to time and space in his or her opportunities and means to enrich the mind with stores of wisdom gathered from all ages and all countries.

Arithmetic.—The study of arithmetic has long been held in high estimation, not only because it has been regarded as the best means of disciplining the reasoning powers, but also because operations in numbers are so frequently involved in the business affairs of life. For these reasons, this branch has had accorded to it a very important place in every course of study, and yet there is no branch upon which so much time has been unprofitably spent, and none whose relative importance has been so largely over-estimated. So much importance has been attached to the ability to "*do sums*" that, in almost every school, at least one-third of the time is devoted to this branch, to the neglect of reading and other language-lessons,—subjects of equal, if not of greater importance.

"Life is too short to spend so large a part of it in the study of arithmetic. It is made too scientific altogether, and in the great attention to fine-spun theories of the science, the art is too often overlooked." It is a useful study if intelligence is required at every step, and if this intelligence is required to be expressed by the pupil in good, clear, correct language; and it is important if used as a means to develop ability to think, to compare, to reason, to express thought, but it is not useful or important if it cultivates merely ability to solve mechanically difficult abstract problems as exercises in mental gymnastics.

Writing.—The importance of the place which writing should have in every course of study, all will concede, because of its value in the every-day transactions of life, in the trades, and in the details of all kinds of traffic. It is, besides, a medium of communicating thought, and is a means of hand-training which is of great benefit to its sister-subject—drawing. It requires, too, more than mere mechanical skill in its execution, more than mere powers of imitation. The correct form of each letter must be *seen;* the relative positions of lines must be recognized; and, through analysis, the elements that enter into the formation of each letter must be learned. There must be a complete mental design before there can be successful effort to reproduce or imitate that design. There must be, finally, the trained muscles of the hand to obey the will in placing in visible form the mental image.

Drawing.—The nature, the objects, and the usefulness of drawing give it a prominent place among the practical branches of education.

It is one of the best means of cultivating the power and the habits of accurate observation. It trains the eye to see intelligently, and the hand to express clearly what is seen. It is a universal language, conveying to the mind what is intended to be represented more plainly than words however well chosen they may be. Facility in drawing, and ability to understand what is drawn, are almost as necessary for communicating and receiving ideas, as facility in writing and in ability to read what *is* written.

"In its industrial phase, drawing is a chief agent in hand-culture. Its importance will be more and more felt as manual skill becomes more imperatively the demand of the times. The study of geometric forms, the conventionalizing of natural forms, the combination of natural forms within given geometric limits according to the taste of the designer, the construction of required figures, all have their practical bearing upon the activities of life. Observation, or the use of the senses; analysis, or the application of the reasoning faculties to the forms and proportions of things observed;—manual skill in representing to the eye the outlines of things observed,—are all cultivated in a remarkable degree by the study of industrial drawing."

Geography.—Geography, if rightly taught, is one of the most important and practical of studies. It, then, treats of the earth as man's dwelling-place; it surrounds him with broad fields and great forests and all the beauties of nature; it gives him food to eat, and water to drink, and the air to breathe; it provides land for tillage, and the vast ocean to supply the little particles of water to be condensed by the great mountains into raindrops to moisten his parched fields; it furnishes means of transportation for the productions of his farms, his workshop, his office; it increases his knowledge of his fellow-man, and helps to elevate him in the scale of civilization, and brings him into nearer communion with his God. It pertains to the earth, its natural condition including land, water, the atmosphere, the climate, the distribution of the mineral, the vegetable, and the animal kingdom, and it embraces all that we know of the earth, its form, size, motion, structure, its present and its past condition, its products, and its inhabitants in their varying degrees of civilization as affecting commerce, government, religion.

History.—In a free country, a knowledge of history must be regarded not as a luxury, but as a necessity. Every man is a citizen, and one part of his work in life is to discharge well and truly the duties of the citizen, and every citizen should be familiar with the past history of his country, and should be governed in his civil relations by lessons of wisdom learned from the actions of wise men who have shaped the destinies of his nation. It kindles and nourishes the flame of patriotism to learn of the patriotic deeds of our forefathers; and it should be one of the objects of school studies to make patriotic citizens as well as to make wise and virtuous men and women.

Great value must be attached to it as a disciplinary study also, in that it gives culture to the memory,—since the facts of history can not be thought out, but can only be acquired by study and retained by effort of memory. It cultivates the imagination,—for the events and the incidents which it relates rise up before the mind as pictures of human action. It increases the power of probable reasoning—as not only are the facts of history to be remembered, but also their causes and their consequences are to be ascertained and traced. It gives besides, moral culture, since it deals with the actions of mankind, and their actions are the outcome, the perceptible results of their moral nature. We learn the motives which inspired those actions and the consequences which resulted from them. We here see the labors of the good and the devotion of the patriot. The utter baseness of the ignoble, the falsehood of the unprincipled, the corruption of the degraded, all stand out in bold relief on the pages of history. As we read, our better nature is aroused, and we are prompted to reject the evil and to choose the good; to emulate the lives of the true and noble, and to loathe the principles and actions of those whose days were passed in unworthy efforts to accomplish selfish ends.

Music.—Music is an important study, if for no other reason than that all pupils may have opportunity to share in the pleasures and the enjoyments which a knowledge of its principles and their applications imparts. It exercises, too, upon the young mind, a wholesome, refining influence, and cultivates a taste for what is elevating in its influence.

Singing tends to improve the physical as well as the moral faculties. It expands the chest, trains the vocal organs, improves the quality and the volume of the voice. As a means of vocal culture, merely, it should receive a large share of attention, and so be made an important aid in helping pupils to become pleasing speakers and readers.

Morals and Manners.—Education in its broadest sense is going on all the time,—that is, the child's mind and nature are being moulded and modified not only while his teachers are exerting some direct, deliberate influence upon him, but also while he is removed from their immediate supervision. The common impression seems to be that if the formal, direct intellectual education of the child be properly attended to, the insensible, indirect education may be left to produce what results it may. Many seem to think that the child is being educated only during the periods of direct effort of parent or teacher, and that the rest of the time is a sort of blank at the end of which the work of education can be taken up where it had before ended, to be continued without interruption. The truth is, however, that this indirect education is more powerful than that which results from the personal efforts of *parents*, for the reason that the time during which parents operate directly upon the heart and the mind of the child is short compared with the long intervals that ensue. Much more is this true with respect to the *teacher* whose influence in the formation of character is even less than that of the parent, since she has control of the pupil for but a few hours per day, and during even these few hours her influence must be distributed among a great many individuals. These unconscious influences are like the rain and the air upon the garden, while those of the parent and the teacher are like the efforts of the gardener, whose digging and weeding and pruning and watering are necessary enough for the perfection of the flower, but they are not to be compared in their effects with those that are at work through the operation of nature whether the gardener remembers or forgets his charge. Here, then, is the essential point—"every course of education should provide for moral instruction that will go beneath the surface to touch the thought, the desire, that will induce proper motives for right actions, that will impart lessons to be repeated in the teacher's absence rather than in her presence. This is the moral education which reaches the heart and establishes *character*, the primal aim and purpose of all culture, the foundation of all that is great in the development of mind, that which lives when all else perishes, lives for all time."

Physical Exercises.—The importance, the necessity of physical exercises, physical culture, in a course of education, will, I think, not be disputed.

It must not mean simply exercise of muscle, or muscular development. It must give some knowledge of the human body, of its framework, of its parts and their obvious uses, that children and pupils may know how to keep themselves in health, and so be the better fitted for the labors of school, and for the duties and the business affairs of life.

It must teach what is good to eat, how it should be eaten, and when; how to take care of the body, and what to wear; what the general laws of health are, and how to apply them respecting food, light, air, ventilation, clothing, sleep, and direct muscular exertion. The brain is but a part of the body and is immediately influenced by the condition of the other parts, so that intellectual education, brain culture, is facilitated by physical culture and bodily health, the outcome of the conditions named.

HOW MUCH SHALL BE TAUGHT?

Assuming that children enter school generally at the age of six years, and that in a majority of graded schools they pass at the age of thirteen into higher special classes or into high schools, I shall divide the course for the intervening seven years into two stages, the first extending over three years, and the second embracing the remaining four years. I shall endeavor to designate in a general way the amount or the extent of each subject to be assigned to each stage, still keeping in view the fundamental governing principles of mental development, the nature of the knowledge to be imparted and the manner of presenting it.

Object Lessons and Oral Instruction. During the first stage.

(1) *Form,*—straight, curved, crooked; position and related position; angles and their kinds; three-sided and four-sided plane figures and their kinds; six sided and eight-sided figures; circle and ellipse and their parts; cube, surface and plane surface; sphere and curved surface; cylinder and cone, prism and pyramid.

Measures,—inch, foot, and yard, square inch, square foot, square yard, cubic inch and cubic foot; liquid measures to the gallon, dry measures to the bushel; time to the year; money to the dollar; weight to the pound.

(2) *Color,*—the primary colors; dark and light colors; the secondary colors and how they are produced; shades and tints and how they are produced; two or three shades and tints of the seven prismatic colors; exercises in matching, and in grouping or classifying colors; some idea of harmony of colors.

(3) *Qualities,*—some of the more obvious qualities of objects,—as smooth, rough, brittle, tough, liquid, solid, transparent, opaque, flexible, pliable, elastic, natural, artificial, porous, astringent, combustible, soluble; by which of the senses each is perceived, and the reverse; exercises leading pupils to learn what qualities given objects possess, and which quality renders each of these objects useful to man.

(4) *Familiar Objects,*—the principal parts, shapes, and uses of common objects seen at home and at school; the obvious parts and the general character or uses of common plants, flowers, and fruit trees; a few articles of clothing, with materials, tools, and trades used or employed in making them; a few articles of food, where obtained and how prepared; a few common trades, with materials and tools used, and articles produced; the characteristic covering, food, head, eyes, ears, nose, and feet of a few domestic animals,—which are used as food, and what their movements are, as walking, flying, wading, swimming.

(5) *The Human Body,*—the principal divisions, as head, trunk, upper and lower extremities and their general parts; familiar talks about the organs of sense, with exercises leading pupils to learn what facts are

learned through each; teeth and how to take care of them; familiar talks about articles of food, and the proper times and manner of eating; familiar talks about articles of dress, with objects and purposes; talks about cleanliness, breathing, ventilation, sleeping.

(6) *Place and Direction,*—relative places in the school-room and the school yard, and a few surrounding streets, with diagrams; east, west, north, south; routes of children to and from school; the lot of ground on which the pupil's home stands; his neighbor's garden; the neighborhood; ground, or land, and water; level fields, meadows, hills, springs, brooks, ponds; a few garden or farm products, and a few manufactured articles; roads, railroads, boats, steamboats, trade; day and night; the four seasons.

Second Stage. (1) *Form and Color,*—geometric forms, applied mainly to natural leaves and flowers, and in conventionalization, mainly as aids to drawing; a few shades and tints of color; matching, grouping, and classifying colors; colors of objects; some idea of harmony of colors.

(2) *Animals,*—the division of animals into common classes, as beasts, birds, reptiles, fishes, insects; the general resemblances of domestic and wild animals belonging to the same class; elements in which animals live, as on earth, in air, or in water; animals having different kinds of teeth, that eat different kinds of food, that have claws, that have different kinds of hoofs; and subsequent division into two-handed and four-handed, flesh-eaters, cud-chewers and non-cud-chewers, and cold-blooded; the division of birds into familiar classes as perchers, scratchers, runners, waders, swimmers, and subsequently into aerial, terrestial, aquatic, and birds of prey; a few common reptiles, fishes and insects; general nature and habits, country and climate in which each is found, their uses as furnishing food and materials for clothing, and as articles of commerce; what is meant by the animal kingdom.

(3) *Plants,*—the roots, the stems, the branches, the leaves, the flowers, the seeds of few common plants; and, subsequently, the stem, with sap, pith, wood, bark,—the leaves, with stalk, blade, midvein, and veins,—the flowers, with petals, pistil, corolla; a few fruit, shade, and forest trees, with some woods useful in the trades; food-plants, with some idea of their use and value in commerce; the country and the climate in which each is found; what is meant by the vegetable kingdom.

(4) *Minerals and Metals,*— coal, salt, sulphur, lime, chalk, building stones of different kinds, and a few precious stones; iron, tin, lead, zinc, nickel, copper, silver, gold; where and how obtained; how prepared, with some uses; what is meant by the mineral kingdom.

(5) *Trades and Occupations,*—those who construct dwellings, make furniture, carpets, clothing, and who supply food; name of trade and production; materials and tools used by each; some products of agriculture and the factories; commerce.

(6) *The Human Body,*—the principal bones of the head, the trunk, and the extremities; the muscles, the necessity and the use and abuse of exercise; food, and the general processes of digestion; blood, and the general character and uses of the heart, the arteries, the veins; breathing, and the general character and uses of the lungs; ventilation; sleep.

(7) *Water,*—water, evaporation, clouds, rain, dew, frost, snow, hail, ice, steam; springs, rivers, the ocean; general causes, uses, and applications.

(8) *Heat,*—expansion by heat, contraction by cold; the thermometer, heated air, draughts, chimneys, ventilation, winds, winds in navigation; general causes, uses, and applications.

(9) The mechanical powers, and some idea of attraction; with some familiar illustrations of their uses and applications.

Language, First Stage.—*Reading.*—One of the first things that a child learns is *words*. This knowledge is acquired primarily through hearing the words spoken; as its mental powers increase, it learns to pronounce words and to use them as means to express what is in its own mind. Subsequently comes, through education, comprehension of the precise meaning of words and ability to use language correctly. This natural process of development of oral language suggests the means of teaching reading or written language:—(1) the object of idea, (2) the sound-symbol or the spoken word, (3) the form-symbol or the written word, (4) the elements of the spoken word or its elementary sounds, (5) the elements of the written word or the letters representing elementary sounds, (6) the combination of sounds to produce the word. This is the introduction to the mechanical process of reading—which requires the correct sound of each letter, the clear articulation of each syllable and word, the prompt recognition of every word, and the reading of phrases and sentences with facility. To acquire this facility it is necessary that pupils have great variety of reading matter to render it impossible for them to call words from memory merely. The intellectual process requires matter not above the comprehension of the pupils that the thought to be expressed may be clear in their minds, otherwise they can not give utterance to it pleasantly or naturally. They must learn to talk what is in their reading lesson. They must know that reading-matter is only spoken language in another form.

Spelling.—In the first stage, spelling is useful chiefly as an aid to reading. Ability to name the letters of a word may be of use to fix in the memory the order in which the letters come, but the ability to write the word, or to recognize it when written, constitutes the art of which oral spelling is but the theory. Written exercises in spelling are of greater worth than oral exercises, while both are necessary to insure a thorough mastery of the branch.

Words that mean something should be taught;—words used in connection with other words to express ideas, to convey thoughts; words as units of the sentences rather than as individuals in separate abstract lists. They should be learned from reading-lessons, and written in sentences or from sentences. Advancement should keep peace with progress made in reading and in writing, for the form of a word, the sound of a word, must be understood before it can be reproduced either orally or in writing. Hence those words which have become familiar in the pupils' speech or in his lessons should be made the basis of instruction, since they form the connecting link between the known and the unknown.

Language Lessons.—In the first stage, language is an *art*, not a science. Many expressions must be corrected, with some simple reason such as the child can understand. Lists of incorrect expressions should be made, and attention should be called to them whenever they are used. Good usage must be inculcated and encouraged through example and practice every day. Full and complete answers to questions should be invariably insisted upon. Nothing can do more to pervert a child's habits of thought and expression than the practice of giving disjointed slipshod answers to questions. The first lessons must be mainly oral. The means are, however, varied and abundant, and can be found in whatever can be made to interest the pupil; in whatever he can be induced to talk about. Objects and pictures, such as will suggest ideas and thought not above the comprehension of the child, should be described orally, and, afterwards, in writing. Ability to use words must depend upon ability to understand their use and their application; hence, conversation, reading- and spelling-lessons, and oral instruction must contribute to the child's vocabulary, and then example and practice must be depended on to enable him to weave into oral or written sentences words chosen from this stock.

Second Stage.—*Reading.*—In the second stage, while attention to the mechanical process must be continued, the effects of long-continued drill should render it of but secondary importance.

The intellectual process should now be made more prominent. This requires a quick, mental interpretation of the writer, and the expression of the thought of the writer with proper modulation, inflection, emphasis. It is not the object of reading to enable pupils to read artistically with the graces or the skill of an elocutionist, but to read understandingly to themselves and to others. They should look for the thought before attempting to give it expression. And they will learn to compare carefully and with judgment what is contained in their reading lessons, and thus form habits that will be of great advantage to them in all other studies.

Reading-matter in addition to or supplementary to the Readers should be supplied, that pupils may be induced to cultivate a taste for reading, and that teachers may feel it a duty to develop this taste in the right direction through their selections, their advice, their influence.

Spelling.—In the second stage, as in the first, spelling can be best taught from the sentence, which gives to them meaning and life. Greater stress should now be laid upon the written expression of thoughts, either from dictation or from memory, or as original spelling; then, as an aid to writing, it should receive increased attention, and the pupil's vocabulary should be extended in such direction as to enable him to use, spell, and write words seen or required in his daily exercises.

Later, the spelling-book may play a more important part,—(1) to prepare pupils to spell correctly when they write, and (2) to drill them in correct articulation, accent, and pronunciation. The first of these functions it shares with other text-books and with oral instruction, but the second is specially its own. Attention should, therefore, be given to the sounds of letters, to the accent and pronunciation of words, and to the marks and the devices which indicate sounds to be produced. Rules for spelling, in connection with grammar, may be of some use to show

how unreliable they are, or to prove exception to themselves. For final drill-exercises, topical spelling, and words to test ability to spell and to pronounce should be given.

Language Lessons.—In the second stage, there should be continued exercises in the correction of errors of speech, in the framing of full, complete sentences as answers to questions, in the use of the pupil's own words, his own language in his general recitations and more systematic exercises in the reproduction of lessons, oral and written, as well as in written descriptions or narrations.

The use of language is an art, and it must be learned by the act of imitating and by practice governed by intelligence; it must be learned through its use not from principles or definitions. Subsequently, technical grammar may be commenced, making the sentence, the unit of thought, the basis of instruction, not, however, to the exclusion of the course heretofore pursued, but in connection with it, that the two may, as, theory and practice, each be the supplement and the complement of the other.

With the sentence as the starting-point, the uses of words, determining their classes can be clearly shown; the analysis and synthesis of the sentence, its essential parts and their modifications through the simple elements; and the relations of words to each other. Later more systematic classification, inflection, rules of syntax, analysis, parsing. But throughout all these exercises, all along the entire course, success can only be hoped for when the technicalities of grammar are hidden under the practical application of principles requiring pupils to think, to do, to write.

Number, First Stage.—*Number.*—Upon entering school, all a child's notions are of real things, numbers of real objects. He should, then, at first, deal only with real units and concrete numbers. He should, at first, be taught to know and recognize *one* concrete thing as the beginning of number, and should then be trained to recognize two things as such and without counting; then three things; then four, then five. He may then count objects actually present, and be taught figures to express numbers; afterwards he should learn how to group objects and to separate them; to find the sum of two or more, to find the difference between two, using first objects themselves, then concrete numbers, then abstract numbers. The analysis of numbers, known as Grube's method is natural and philosophical, although, perhaps, rather to minute. It is better at first to confine attention to addition and subtraction, leaving multiplication and division to be taken up later, when small equal groups can be added together, or when a larger number can be separated into such groups.

Groups of ten things each, or cents and the dime, and groups of groups of ten things, or cents, dimes, and the dollar, will exemplify the principles of the decimal system of numeration, and the application of these principles in the writing of numbers by means of figures will exemplify the art of decimal notation. The pupil is now ready to complete the writing and the reading of numbers through thousands, to complete simple operations in the four fundamental rules; to know the difference between odd and even numbers, prime and composite, concrete and abstract; to learn the necessary signs and the names of necessary terms; to construct the tables before memorizing them; and to understand the simplest principles of fractions; and to know a few of common terms applied in denominate numbers as used in every-day life; in all exercises, attention being directed to the art rather than the science, to processes rather than to reasons.

Second Stage.—Pursuing the same general plan, during the second stage, common and decimal fractions; denominate numbers commonly used; percentage and its applications to Interest, Banking, Profit and Loss, Commission, Stocks, Insurance, and Government Bonds; ratio and proportion; involution and the square root; may be taken up.

In every case, care must be taken not to devote much time to operations upon large abstract numbers; too little to processes; too little thôught to the training pupils to talk about this work, to tell what they have done, how they have done it, and why they have done it.

In every exercise there should be some fixed definite purpose, and this purpose should be kept constantly in view; and all questions and drill and work should tend to develop the plan and secure the end designed.

Subsequently applied Geometry, or Mensuration, may be added to a limited extent to determine the length lines, the areas of three- and four-sided figures, and the circle; and to determine the areas of the surfaces and the volumes of the cube, the prism, the sphere, the cone, the pyramid.

And, finally, algebra as an extension of arithmetic, in which numbers are represented by letters, for generalization. Say through simple equations.

Writing, First Stage.—As writing is useful mainly as a means by which thought can be expressed, it should be commenced when children begin to learn the forms of written language, when they begin to read.

If words are presented to them as wholes and in the printed or written form, as an aid to reading, and as an indispensable aid to spelling, they should become able to reproduce those words as they were first used. As soon as the slate and the pencil can be placed in the hands of the pupil, so soon should the formation of script letters be commenced. They can be almost as easily learned and formed as print letters, and without any loss of time. They can not be accurately formed, for writing is an art and to become expert in it, pupils must drill and practice, practice and drill.

While the general writing exercises are in progress, the formation of letters according to fixed principles should be commenced and carried on through a regularly-graded and systematic course, that the exact forms of the several groups of small letters and a few of the capitals may be learned and executed.

Second Stage.—Any handwriting that is uniform, legible and easily and rapidly written is a good hand. It is not essential, therefore, that any special system of penmanship be adopted; yet, in order to economize time and to insure uniformity in the construction of letters, it is necessary that some style shall be made the basis of instruction, and in the writing-exercises this style should always be required and adopted.

The repetition of abstract rules for the formation of any principle or letter should not be required or permitted; convince pupils that they can not learn to write except by writing, and that they can not write well unless they know how to form the letters correctly.

The practice of off-hand writing in addition to the more special instruction of the copy-book is of great benefit, giving, as it does, character to the writing, and facility in its execution.

Drawing, First Stage.—The work of the first stage should require pupils to become able to distinguish positions, the position of points and lines, and to understand and use such terms as clearly and accurately indicate them; to learn the names of simple geometric forms used, and to draw on the slate, and later on paper, any plain form having a geometric base; to form simple designs or patterns by using straight or curved lines in the square, the oblong, the hexagon, the octagon, the circle; to make new arrangements or combinations from copies or forms previously drawn; and, to a limited extent, to illustrate some object-lessons by diagrams or drawing.

Second Stage.—The work of the second stage should require the pupil to distinguish and draw the ellipse, the oval, the spiral, as geometric basis; enlargement and reduction exercises; applications of forms learned to common objects; the unit of design and axis of symmetry, and original designs and borders to be formed from repetition of any given unit; conventionalization of leaves and flower-forms, and their geometric arrangement in design; some simpler historic forms.

Geography, First Stage.—The first lessons in geography should, toward the end of the first stage, follow the lessons before given in *place and direction.* The lot of ground on which the pupil's home stands, with its garden; the school yard; the streets and roads; the green fields in the country; the hills and meadows; the spring at which he quenches his thirst; the little pond or brook on which he launches his little stick-boat laden with merchandise of dirt; sunrise and sunset; day and night; the seasons;—all these are the known that have come under his observation, and with the aid of right methods of instruction, he has that to start with which will enable him to secure a thorough knowledge of geography,—of situation, land and water, soil, climate, the productions of the earth, trade and commerce, and all that we call physical nature.

Second Stage.—The work of the second stage should start with an understanding of what is meant by hill and mountain; plain and valley; spring, creek, and river; pond, lake, and island; the idea of globe and of the shape of the earth; of the surface of the earth; of continents and the ocean; of countries; of diagrams and of maps. The general position of the continents, the grand divisions, and the oceans shown on the globe and on maps; the rotation of the earth; day and night; the seasons; climate; equator and poles; the five belts or zones on the earth's surface with general climate of each; the zones of each continent; and, later, of each grand division with the general nature of the climate, productions, animals, and inhabitants of each zone; the smaller natural divisions of land and water; North America, the United States, and each of the grand divisions, giving attention to comparative size, to location, and climate, surface, productions, animals, inhabitants; then to the important political, and land and water divisions; to mountain and river systems; to seaports and commerce; to government and civilization.

History, First and Second Stage—Near the end of the first stage, some oral instruction in history should be given without requiring the preparation of set lessons.

Such lessons should refer to the pupil's own country, since he is most interested in events occurring in his own land. The basis should be biography. Children are more interested in persons than in events, so that the first lessons should be largely personal, and events should cluster around some personal character. The first lessons should be in the form of narrative, and the life of some great leader or patriot should form the centre from which to view the historic story,—as COLUMBUS, JOHN SMITH, the Puritans, PENN, PATRICK HENRY, WASHINGTON, FRANKLIN, JEFFERSON, ADAMS. These events should be given in connection with geography. They are closely related in nature and interest, and historic events should be linked with the location of places at which such events occurred. Later, the subject should be presented in the form of epochs or historic centres to which certain causes lead, in which certain events occur, and from which certain results follow. Some dates are necessary to be known, but such only as are absolutely essential as landmarks in history. The sequence of events, and their connection with and dependence upon each other, are of much more importance than the precise date of each. The date, then, of the central event as a pivotal point should be learned exactly, and the others in round or approximate numbers merely.

Music.—It is sufficient that pupils shall become able at first to sing by echo, in imitation of the teacher, in order to train the ear to hear and the vocal organs to imitate sounds with precision; to sing simple songs by echo or rote, that pupils may become accustomed to sing together in unison; to learn the melody of the scale; to learn each separate sound of the scale by proper syllable-name or letter-name; to learn the simplest forms of notes and rests; to form the staff, and to place on it the notes of the scale,—that is, the simplest form of musical notation; to drill in exercises with the natural notes; to beat time so as to become able to mark the necessary movements without conscious mental effort; to sing by rote and by note easy songs within the compass of the voice; and, finally, to understand and use terms necessary to express or convey intended ideas. All such exercises should be given mainly at the opening and the closing of school, or as a relief from other studies.

Morals.—These lessons are to be taught, not by abstract lectures, but as suggested by the occurrences of the school-room, by the conduct of the pupil, by the character of prominent persons mentioned in the newspapers, in reading lessons, in history;—obedience; pure thoughts and chaste language; honesty; control of temper; proper treatment of dumb animals; industry; politeness and kindness to others; respect for superiors; care of private and public property; right and wrong, with proper motives for right actions; punctuality; perseverance; order and system; moral courage; duties to parents, teachers, companions, employers, and employed; learning a trade; attention to business; promises and engagements.

Physical Culture.—Mainly as relief from other school exercises, but still in accordance with right methods:—

Free gymnastics requiring movements of the head, the body, the arms, the legs, from those which are exceedingly simple and easy, to those which are more complicated; exercises in breathing properly; singing; vocal culture; marching.

PROMOTIONS AND EXAMINATIONS.

Promotions from grade to grade should be made at any time during the term, whenever a pupil is prepared to take up and understand the work of the next higher grade. An earnest, industrious, ambitious pupil should never be compelled to wait for laggards in his class, simply that, at the end of the term, all may be examined together for promotion. The door from grade to grade should be always open, that pupils capable of doing higher work, may, as their right, pass *onward*, and if possible, accomplish the entire course as they show qualification and preparation to complete it.

The promotion of classes, however, should depend upon, and be governed by examinations at the end of each term.

These examinations serve a threefold purpose; to ascertain the grade of scholarship; to regulate class promotions and to test the character and efficiency of the teacher's work as regards discipline of mental powers and methods employed.

Properly-conducted and regular oral and written examinations at fixed intervals, are a very essential means of securing the continued efficiency and progress of schools. Such examinations, conducted upon a common-sense plan, with questions clearly expressed, covering the ground of the work assigned, and in accord with the principles of mental development under the training regulated by a carefully-prepared course of study, are of the greatest benefit to a system of education; and, in general, are a fair and just test of a pupil's knowledge, and of a teacher's ability to instruct. The expectation of this test affords a healthful stimulus to both pupils and teacher, and increases the ease and efficiency with which the several studies are taught and learned.

But, if examinations are made the end and aim of the work of the term; if attention be directed only to the subjects and topics to be counted at examination; if the mind of the pupil is taxed to memorize abstract facts and details upon which examination is expected; if the spirit of inquiry for information beyond certain limits is restrained because such knowledge will avail nothing at examination; in short, if teaching is to tend solely to the preparation of pupils for examination; then they cripple the usefulness of our schools; they press out from our pupils mental health and strength and energy; they lead to the cramming of the mind with useless intellectual lumber, that will never be made use of, because it will never be in a state of preparation to make it available; then they become as a sword constantly hanging over the pupil's head destroying his peace of mind, and drawing away all freshness and pleasure, and interest from his school life.

TEACHING.

The science of teaching, like all other sciences, is at once the process and the result of successful experiment. It is based upon principles and is developed by facts, that have been discovered and applied through long and carefully-made trials by those whose minds are competent to suggest, and who, themselves, are qualified to apply them. Mere theories and speculations, as to the means and methods are of no greater worth than they are in the science of chemistry, anatomy, astronomy, physics. They are utterly valueless until they are put to the test, and have proved themselves worthy of acceptance and adoption, for the purposes which prompted the required investigation. Teaching is a progressive science. The plans and methods of a century ago, of a generation ago, will not do for to-day. The teacher of to-day must be earnest, must be imbued with the spirit of the times, must be ready for the contest of practical realities against traditions. He must know the wants of the hour, and he must be prepared to supply them, ready to invent new plans, new methods, new schemes adapted to the condition of society in which he lives, and he must be bold enough to insist upon their being tests for adoption if they are good, and must be prepared for their rejection if experience and reason, and the demands of the hour discover in them that which will not produce intelligent, useful boys and girls to become future men and women who are to carry on aggressive warfare against visionary dreams and dreamers. Teachers must, therefore, cease to stand aloof from those engaged in other pursuits in life, as if they would say, "we are holier than you." Rather, they must know what others are doing, they must know what others want to do, they must know what ought to be done, and then they must be ready to show the way, lead the way, teach the way.

A. J. Rickoff, of Ohio, was called upon to open the discussion. He said:—"I had hoped not to be called upon at Chautauqua. I had hoped to be permitted to enjoy absolute rest. Yet I am not unwilling to say something concerning the excellent paper to which we have listened. After my paper which I read at Philadelphia last year had been published, one of our Cleveland editors asked what I intended to do about this course of study—a very pertinent question indeed. I am not yet ready to reply to that question. It is too important a question to be answered without deliberation, and we are here to deliberate upon it. It will be well to notice the great contrast between the present course of study in our schools and the course of study used forty and fifty years ago. The text-books of the schools of our fathers were small in size and few in number quite in contrast with those of our day. I do not hesitate to give it as my opinion that our course of study is gorged and that its size should be diminished. If we are not willing or wise or able enough to revise this course of study it will be done by our successors who will be stronger, wiser, abler than we.

The secretary then read a letter from the Hon. James A. Garfield. This letter, by an oversight, was printed on p. 25, with the letter of Walter Smith.

W: N. Hailmann, of Michigan, then read the following paper on

FROM PESTALOZZI TO FROEBEL.

The connection betweeen Pestalozzi and Froebel is so intimate, they ar in several respects—altho following wholly different methods—so nearly allied in principls and aims, that many stil look upon Froebel as a mere modifier of Pestalozzi, and accuse one of his greatest creations—the kindergarten—of being only "a kind of object-teaching." This is not astonishing in superficially-informd laymen, or in those of our profession who know one or the other or both only from hearsay; but it challenges our serious reflection to hear similar remarks from men and women who stand deservedly high in the educational world, to notice that men to whom all look with admiration se in the kindergarten only "sub-primary schools," that they use it in a schoolish way, and measure its efficiency only by its direct effects on the school attainments of children.

This misapprehension of Froebel's work finds an easy explanation in the fact that, as a whole, the educational world is stil struggling towards Pestalozzi. Seeing Froebel through the veil of Pestalozzi's great achievements, they hav no conception of the wide stretch beyond, that separates Froebel from his teacher. Thus, stationd on the earth's surface, we se the moon, the planets, the fixt stars, the milky way—all, apparently, in the same plane, and hav no conception of the immense distances—the years of light—that li between them.

Happily, this need not discourage the disciples of Froebel; for, in spirit, Pestalozzi and Froebel ar one. Both wer equally animated by a great love of mankind, and by a stedfast faith in the highest ideals of humanity; both held, that in the recognition of truth and beauty, in the practice of justice and love, the march of mankind is of necessity ever onward. Hence Pestalozzi's light must needs lead to Froebel. This is conclusivly shown in the fact that a great majority of Froebel's warmest advocates hav reacht him through an equally-warm advocacy of Pestalozzi. Nay, it is shown in the very fact that those who ar stil struggling to reach Pestalozzi, se in Froebel only his pupil, his disciple.

It cannot be my purpose, then, to deprecate those who eagerly follow in the wake of Pestalozzi's progress towards Froebel, much les to deprecate the great master himself. On the contrary, by concentrating Froebel's higher and purer light on Pestalozzi's achievments, I would aim to render these clearer, more attractiv, more convincing, so that those eager followers of the "father of popular education" may the sooner become equally eager *conscious* followers of the "dicoverer of childhood."

Considering the work of Pestalozzi objectivly, *i. e.* without reference to the subjectiv springs of his wonderful activity, we find that its educational valu centrs in the recognition of all-sided development in the growth of the individual, and, perhaps, of the race. The recognition of this principl led him to insist upon the necessity of activity on the part of the child as the essential condition of development, since only by their exercise can the faculties be developt; it led him to oppose cramming, since the educator can create nothing in the child, he can only superintend the development of inborn faculties; it led him to the importance of training as opposed by mere instruction and precept; it led him to the importance of *erly* training, inasmuch as during the first stages of develment the faculties are most in need of protection and guidance; it led him to acknowledge and extol the mighty influence of the mother in the work of education, and her peculiar fitnes for this work; it led him to respect in every child the advanced humanity of which it gave rich promis, and which alone he thought worthy of the educator's efforts; it led him to base all instruction and all training upon the child's own sense-impressions, proceeding from the known to the unknown, from the near to the remote, from the whole to the parts, from particulars to generals, from perception to reflection, etc., as indicated in his so-cald laws of object-teaching, with which all ar familiar; it led him to the alfabet of perception, since in form, number, and language—unphilosophical as this may appear to us now—he saw the ultimate germs of all knowledge, which must first be wel rooted and made strong in their simplicity, before they can support a complicated system of branches, and bear foliage and fruit.

It is tru that his practice was in very many respects behind his theory, nay, in some respects evn opposed to it. Thus the activity which he induced in his children, of repeating, parrot-like, whatever happend to strike him as suitabl or desirabl, the long list of words—meaningless to the children—which he had them to memorize,—wer far from favoring a helthy development of the intellectual faculties. Similarly, the object-lessons in their English and American form—altho not strictly PESTALOZZIAN,—the very refinement of cramming, have been lauded by their wel-meaning advocates as antidotes to cramming. Again, altho urging the need of training, he instructed so much, and so incessantly, when with the children, that he gave them no opportunity to exercise their own productiv faculties; for, surely, the mere repetition of the master's words is not an exercise of productiv faculties. Thus it would be esy to show that, in his practice, he habitually infringed upon his own laws of object-teaching, and was continually confounding his alfabet of perception: so that it has been wel sed that PESTALOZZI's greatnes lies more in his aims than in his personal method.

The shortcomings of PESTALOZZI in his personal method ar du, on the one hand, to the power of heredity, which, acting as a sort of mental inertia, compels us to move (though, possibly, with decreasing velocities) in the directions in which our ancestors moved, in spite of better insight; on the other hand, to the force of surroundings, whose current wil draw our conduct away from our aims with a velocity proportiond to our own weaknes of motiv and self-directing power: in other words, it is du—as I hav shown elsewhere—to the law of the personal equation, applied on an extended scale to our lives, and the life of the race, as a whole. When we view PESTALOZZI's struggl in this light, our admiration for his stedfast adhesion to his aims, in spite of the weighty obstacls of his nature and his time, and the shortcomings of his personal method, is vastly increast. We, then, se in him a man who regards and loves truth more than himself, whose faith in her ultimate succes is never shaken by his own failures in her service. There is scarcely a moment in our lives when we may not be sustaind, encouraged, elevated by so beautiful an exampl. Perchance, too, we shal lern from this circumstance the lesson that it is safer to follow good men's aims than to follow their personal practice, a lesson that might be red with profit by many of the so-cald followers of FROEBEL who, in aiming to follow the man, lose sight of his high aims, and sooner or later become entangld in steril formalities, or fall esy victims to any system or tendency that wil pretend to patronize FROEBEL. Men and their practices suffer with the faults and evils of their time; besides, they ar fleeting, and do service for a period only; but their aims, inasmuch as they li in the direction of truth, partake of the immortality, the irrepessibility, and infinity of truth,—they ar for all times.

Is not this proved by this wonderful PESTALOZZI? No one, according to his own confessions and self-accusations, could be les fitted for carrying out his lofty aims. In all his practical undertakings he faild, faild ignominiously; and yet, by his aims alone, which he never doubted and never forsook in all his adversity, he marks the greatest epoch in the history of education, and stands out a shining monument of the power of truth and love. If these can accomplish so much with so weak an agent, what would they not accomplish if they should take equally full possession of one of our giants in practical skill?

It is a remarkabl fact that FROEBEL, who supplemented PESTALOZZI's work and placed it on a broad and sure foundation, was also deficient in skil in the practical affairs of life; altho—thanks to his clearer mind and wider culture—he exceld as a teacher, and carried out his own principls in his work with the children. He, too, had a hard struggl with life, and met with frequent reverses, that must have crusht him, had he not been upheld by a faith and singlnes of purpose as great, as stedfast as PESTALOZZI's. Ridicule, persecution by Church, State, and School, pecuniary losses, the estrangement of friends, had no sting for him; his unfaltering faith in ultimate succes sustaind him in all trials and tribulations.

FROEBEL, in speaking of the difference between himself and PESTALOZZI says: "All my means of culture I formd from an idea; therefore, I begin with a type of unity (the ball)." And further on: "I am in pure contrast with PESTALOZZI: he started from the misery and wants of poverty, from external conditions; I, on the other hand, from the internal, from my own peculiar view of life, hence from an idea." These propositions contain the key-note of his advance beyond PESTALOZZI; altho, in the second proposition, this is clouded by a strange misconception on his part. It is tru that the external motiv of PESTALOZZI lay in the misery and wants of the poor pesantry of Switzerland; but it is equally tru that he was led in his work by an internal motiv, by an exalting idea of the worth of humanity, and of its unity with all being. All ideas indicate but the more or less general drift of experiences and of aims which, themselvs, spring primarily from experiences, whether they be receivd directly, or indirectly through instruction or through the channels of heredity. Thus, FROEBEL, like all men of his calibr, was in truth led in his work by an idea based on "his peculiar view of life;" but he, too, like PESTALOZZI, was primarily moved by an external impetus which he indicates clearly enough when he points to the miseries and wants of the educational practices of his time.

On the other hand, it must be admitted that FROEBEL attended more to his internal motiv, his idea, than was the case with PESTALOZZI, who was predominantly conscious of his external purpose, the relief of misery; and to this extent, FROEBEL offers, indeed, a contrast to PESTALOZZI. His view of life, however, scarcely deservs to be cald peculiar, since, as wil be seen directly, it is the view which philosophers and teachers of mankind hav at all times urged more or les clearly and completely. But his intentnes upon his idea was peculiar, and to this may be ascribed also the peculiar clearnes and completenes with which he apprehended his view of life and gave expression to it in his educational work.

FROEBEL sums up his view of life and the object of education in the following words: "In all things there livs and reigns an eternal law. This law is enounced with equal clearnes and distinctnes in nature—the external,—in the spirit—the internal,—and in life—which unites the two.—This all-controlling law is necessarily based on a living, all-pervading, energetic, self-conscious, and—hence—eternal unity. This unity is GOD.—The divinity that is in each thing, constitutes its essence. It is the destiny and life-work of all things to unfold their inmost essence externally, to reveal the divinity that is in them.—The special destiny and life-work of man, as an intelligent being, is to become fully and clearly conscious of his essence, his destiny—and life-work, and to accomplish it in perfect spontaneity and freedom.—Education consists in leading man, as an intelligent, thinking being, growing into consciousnes, to a pure and unsullied, fre and spontaneous representation of the inner law, of the divine in him.—The recognition of that eternal law; the insight into its origin, its essence, into the living connection among its effects; the knowledge of life in its totality,—is science: and, referd by conscious, thinking, intelligent man to its representation and accomplishment in himself, it is the science of education. Education must lead and guide man to a clear insight into his own nature, to peace with nature as a whole, and to unity with GOD: hence, it must elevate him to a knowledge of himself and of mankind, to a knowledge of GOD and of Nature, and to the pure and holy life to which such knowledge leads." And elsewhere: "Education must lead the child, must lead the man to unification with life in all directions; it must lead him to full unification with his kind, with his neighbor, with society; it must lead him to the greatest possibl unification with nature and her laws; it must lead him to an indissolubl unification with the principl of all being, the alfa and omega of all life—with GOD."

On this broad and secure platform, made for all time, and for "all men, good and tru," whatever may be their subjectiv ideas of GOD, FROEBEL placed himself; these ideas he held fast in all his work. It will be noticed, on closer scrutiny, that they contain nothing new, nothing that had not been deemd "pure and holy" long before his time; and yet, utterd by him, they seem like a new revelation. What is it that givs his utterance of them this peculiar charm? It is the fact that he first translated them fully, clearly, consistently into life, and into the work of education. Thereby he made them the common property of mankind, and invested them with a new and strong interest to many who had heretofore lookt upon them as having merely theoretical valu, and as the privilege of the favord few. Similarly, JAMES WATT, by translating the world's knowledge of steam into practical life, and MORSE, who did the same with the world's knowledge of electro-magnetism, appear as greater benefactors of mankind than those on whose shoulders they stand, and who, while recognizing the principls involvd, faild to make them redily available for purposes of practical life: and many who gave no heed to the powers of steam and electro-magnetism while they wer in the hands of the theorists and bungling inventors, now greeted them with grateful admiration as the discoveries of WATT and MORSE.

Let us look at the consequences of this view of life in the master mind of FROEBEL. Deriving all things from an all-embracing unity, which he calls GOD, he holds that "it it is the special destiny and life-work of all things to unfold (or evolv) their inner essence, to reveal the divinity that is in them." This implies evolution, the *development* of PESTALOZZI intensified, made more living, as it wer, by a clear and distinct conception that it is not merely growth of strength through exercise, but development, from within outward, of an inborn tendency, pervading the whole being, toward an infinit ideal that leads ever upward.

In man, as an intelligent being, this special destiny and life-work is exalted by the demand that he "is to become clearly conscious of his essence, his destiny and life-work, and to accomplish it in perfect spontaneity and fredom;" and it is made the busines of education to secure this. While, therefore, with PESTALOZZI, he looks upon activity on the part of the child as the essential condition of its evolution, FROEBEL labors stedily and effectually to make this evolution fre and spontaneous, to arouse the *voluntary* activity which alone deservs the name *self*-activity. PESTALOZZI induces the child to do what *he* wants it to do, in the way that *he* deems best, and with an aim which he alone can comprehend; FROEBEL, on the other hand, teaches the child to do effectually what *it* wants to do, in a way that seems agreeabl to the child, and with aims fully its own,—taking care, in a chiefly guarding and guiding activity, directed mainly to his example, and the suggestiv influences of surroundings, that these aims, and purposes, and desires li in the direction of his divine ideal.

This protects him effectually against cramming, against which Pestalozzianism has proved inefficient evn in the work of its founder. It is tru, it must be admitted that there ar also many so-cald kindergartens, labeld FROEBELIAN, in which cramming of the worst sort is practiced; but this can be ascribed neither to FROEBEL'S doctrin nor to his exampl. The persons in charge of these kindergartens either hav had no opportunity to lern more than the merest outside of his work, or hav faild in their apprehension of his teachings: they ar—if they ar ernest in their work—stil struggling towards PESTALOZZI, or entangld in the contradictions between aim and execution which his name implies.

Again, with PESTALOZZI, FROEBEL was led, by his view of life, to the importance of training as opposed to mere instruction and precept. For PESTALOZZI, however, this training was important only in so far as it strengthend certain faculties involvd; while with FROEBEL it was practice in the art of giving expression to the inner self, in the art of accomplishing "destiny and life-work," in "complete living." Pestalozzi would train his pupils to se what *he* sees, to hear and feel what *he* hears and feels, to understand things as *he* understands them, to express them as *he* expresses them, always judging their perfection by its resemblance to his own. Froebel trains his children to giv expression, in word and *deed*, to their own notions and ideas of things, so that, on comparing the representations of their ideas of things with the things themselvs, they may themselvs discover and correct misapprehensions and deficiencies, and lern the wholesome art of self-criticism; he trains them to use their powers in such a way that with the scantiest stock of material they may accomplish their purposes, that they may lern to be always the architects of their own happines and dispensers of blessings to all around; and he tests their perfection by the agrement between their expressions and their own ideas, by the amount of joy which their activity brings and givs, so that he has for each child a special criterion, and new criteria for each advanced stage of evolution.

Like Pestalozzi, Froebel insists upon the importance of erly training; but in this, too, Froebel rises from the crude views and hasty directions to the higher level of clear insight, distinct purpose, and calm, full control of means. Pestalozzi, indeed,speaks with his peculiarly-intense enthusiasm of the mothers of Appenzell who, during the first week of the child's life, suspend a large and brilliantly-colored paper bird over the cradl before the eyes of the child, and of the eagerness with which the child struggls with hands and feet to reach the motley gewgaw; but, in his directions to the mother, he fails to obey the insight gaind, and—confining himself with his usual one-sidedness in practice to the training in perception and language—shows the mother how to repress the child's eagernes to get hold of the outer world, by means of dry talks on the number and position of the bones of its own body.

How differently Froebel! who—improving on the suggestion of the mother of Appenzell—replaces her complicated, frail bird by pure types of unity, the soft-colord balls of the first gift, which cannot be injurd by the child's eager handling, nor repel its advances by the shocks of sharp points. These balls, hanging over the littl couch before the child's eyes, call to the child awakening into consciousness:—Come out, we ar here! Come out to us! Se, we move, we liv; come, play with us! Come, love us, and let us love you!—These constant calls of the balls ar interpreted by the mother in pleasing, simple, endearing word and song and, thus invested with new and ever-growing charms; and, then, child and mother and ball roam about in the immediate neighborhood and explore the world within the child's reach, the child's world. All the child's growing ideas of outer individualities cluster about the balls, and, when resting from their explorings, child and ball and mother rehearse their experiences, the ball ever redy and competent to represent, at the bidding of the child, the images of the ideas gaind, making the child's growth an all-sided, doing, living growth, insted of an all but passiv "se and babbl.

In du time, the child's powers hav grown stronger, the scope of its perception has become more extended, its purposes ar more complicated and remote, its skil in saying and doing is increast above the level of the first gift. Then, the hard ball, cylinder, and cube of the second gift, differing widely and decidedly from one another in external character, step in, saying to the child: We ar different, compare us; we can each do many and different things, try us; we can go further on all sides than the soft balls, come roam with us!—and, later, the third and fourth gifts rush in, shouting: Look *into* us; measure, count, change us; do with us what you wil: we shal always giv you joy, show you new sights, help you in all your merry play, and giv you a world of happines. In all this, and in all els, the mother follows and takes part, cheering, interpreting, helping the child in its efforts to understand and control ifs expanding world;—not forcibly lifting it up into *her* world, where it feels so strange, and lost, and powerles.

It seems to me that in no direction does PESTALOZZI deserv more the gratitude of mankind than in his spirited vindication of the mother's influence in the work of education, and of her natural fitnes for the task. Yet, aside from his general fault of running in his practice directly against his theory, or falling far short of his aims, his views on this point seem to suffer unusually from that crudenes, vaguenes, uncertainty, and lack of foundation, against which FROEBEL was secured by his strict adhesion to his views of life. Nay, it is doubtful that PESTALOZZI respected women as a factor in humanity equal in importance to man, since, in his own teaching, he never addrest the girls, but only the boys. In short, the contradictions in his nature appear here, perhaps, most glaringly. On the one hand, he extols "the parental heart" as "the only sure foundation on which to build institutions of popular education," and "the holiness of home" as "the only condition of equal development of all the human faculties;" on the other hand, he almost wholly ignores the father's existence as an important specific factor of home-life. On the one hand, he exalts the mother above the schoolmaster, and makes her the schoolmaster's teacher; on the other, he would degrade her into a petty school-pedant, and her home into a little factory of schoolish automatons. On the one hand, there ar profetic glimpses of the widest truth in all her fulnes and brilliancy; on the other hand, a blind surrender to expediency with the narrowest of aims.

None of these contradictions, none of these wanderings perplex us in FROEBEL. To him, the family in its completenes—father, mother and child—appear as "the holiest of holies of humanity," as the conscious triune molecule of human society; and in it, father and mother ar equally supreme, each in the allotted way; both equally essential and responsibl in the evolution of the child's life. If he speaks with greater warmth and concern of the mother, he does so, partly, becaus—as the representativ of love—she stands, in the erliest years of the child, nearer to it, and appears, within the family, as a mediator between the father and the child,—and, partly, becaus he recognized that woman's culture had been neglected, and that it was necessary to insist strenuously upon the cultivation of her heart and mind, so that she might consciously and deliberately act her part in the life of the family, as the full equal of her male complement. Indeed, in his eyes the kindergarten derived much of its importance from its character as a school for mothers, and of conscious motherliness in woman. And, how fully he has succeded, in the organization and work of the kindergarten, in opening woman's mind and heart to the importance of her office as a mother of humanity, in supplying her with sufficient means for filling this office consciously and succesfully, and in full accordance with his view of life,—all can testify who hav had a glimpse at the *inside* of kindergarten work.

In the light of the foregoing remarks, it is evident that, in his respect for the humanity in the children, PESTALOZZI could not proceed much beyond the intense wish of protecting and nursing it. The attainment of this aim was so far beyond the circumstances under which he labord, his labors themselvs wer so fragmentary, his control of men and means so deficient,—that it must remain for him a fond wish, an ultimate end. This, indeed, proves the intensity and purity of his own humanity, and —utterd in his own warm words—paved the way for succes on the part of his pupils and followers. In the hands of the great pathfinder FROEBEL, however, the humanity of the child is in truth the only and constant aim and outcome of the educational activity; in the least trifles, his view of life—which embodies the essence of highest humanity—is ever held in clear view; the child's progress in "unity with self, with others, with nature, and with GOD" is secured at every step. Thus FROEBEL proves that PESTALOZZI's hope and faith wer not a dream, but the profetic conviction of a man whose every thought and deed wer dictated by infinit love.

PESTALOZZI's derivation of all training and instruction from sense-impressions, his so-cald "laws of object-teaching," and his "alfabet of perception," hav been so frequently, so extensivly and thoroly criticized, that it would be los of time and labor to undertake their criticism here. They ar, indeed, wel enough as far as they go; but this is their main fault, they do not go far enough in any direction. The truth that is in them is embodied in FROEBEL's simple law of the connection of contrasts, with which all ar familiar and which, as the law of intellectual life, supplies also the deficiencies of PESTALOZZI's complicated code.

Thus we hav seen that, in every point of PESTALOZZI's great advance, FROEBEL has gone far beyond him, has—inasmuch as PESTALOZZI's aim lay in the same direction—thereby proved the genius of PESTALOZZI. It stil remains for me to point out, at least, two features which, though hinted by PESTALOZZI, ar hinted so very vaguely and obscurely that they may be claimd as exclusiv features of FROEBEL's work. I refer to his training of manual skil, and to the use of the kindergarten in training the social nature of children.

Manual skil, in FROEBEL's educational scheme, plays a part similar to language: it is traind and used as a medium for the expression of ideas. These expressions of ideas ar fashiond by the hands from some more or les plastic material, and hav the great advantage of resembling the things exprest more or les closely, more or les directly, more or les corporeally. The child, therefore, has an opportunity here to compare these more or les material representations of the ideas of things with the things themselvs, to test their accuracy directly, to correct misapprehensions and supply deficiencies on the spot,—in short, to get new, clearer, fuller insight in applying its previous insight in self-activ, joyful efforts to its purposes of pleasure.

These exercises in giving outward form to the images and imaginings of its own mind ar carried on in such a way as to giv the child almost reverence for the material with which it plays with the purposes indicated. The great pleasure it derives from the playthings render them naturally dear to the child, and this grateful love is kept fresh by handling the playthings in such a way that they will never cease to give fresh, higher pleasure. What the child saw yesterday in these playthings is there again to-day, with much new insight; and this fact, repeated daily, plants in the child's mind the faith that they ar inexhaustibl, leading it to an appreciation of the infinity of truth, of which they ar utterances. Thus it happens that evn in later years, when the child has acquired much skil in the more complicated use of advanced gifts and occupations, it will return to the ball again and again with renewd zest, sure of seeing in it or with its help something new, or in a new, clearer light, of acquiring some new power or intensifying some old one. This secures it against surfeit and ennui, these greatest enemies of peace and purity: for it, the simplest surroundings—the plainest world, as it wer,—teem with pleasures "ever fresh and ever new," with opportunities to se and do.

Evn what, in les thoughtful play with the occupations, *e. g.* with cutting and folding papers, would be thrown aside as waste, Froebel utilizes in a variety of ways with the child, chiefly in training the æsthetic sense by arranging the waste clippings in numberles forms of symmetry, or otherwise applying them to purposes of ornament. Thus the child lerns to love and respect what in superficial comparisons we ar pleasd to call the meanest things, as being connected in their essence and in their possibilities with the essence of all things.

If to this we ad that Froebel's series of playthings, viewd as a whole, represents, on the one hand, a comprehensiv and all-sided analysis of the material universe into abstract elements, and, on the other hand, a clear, distinct synthesis of these abstractions into a new ideal universe in the child's mind; and that this feature pervades the entire scheme at every stage and step, giving the child in and through its play, at all times, the full mastery of its expanding world, inwardly and outwardly:—we ar forced to admit that Froebel has, indeed, found a way of leading—as he expresses it—"to widest and highest life, in and through life."

Right on the surface of this fase of Froebel's scheme, it wil be seen that it leads to the industries and to art. This, surely, is one of its greatest merits, inasmuch as progress owes, perhaps, its greatest triumphs to the industries and to art; yet we should be in danger of injustice to Froebel, and of perverting his work or lessening its scope and influence, wer we to overlook its broader and deeper tendencies in the development of child-nature, by laying too great or exclusiv stres on its industrial and art bearings. Froebel leads to the love of work by training and enabling the child to find its greatest pleasure in creativ doing; he leads it to skil in imitativ and inventiv labor by teaching it to utilize every new idea or insight at once and succesfully in efforts to make life more enjoyable, rendering the surroundings clearer, and more beautiful, and more yielding. with the help of the new light; he leads to art by enabling the child to enjoy, from its germs onward, the delight that attends the habit of giving outward plastic expression to the ideas and ideals which a rich life generates in a fertil mind.

One of the most prominent distinctiv features of FROEBEL'S educational scheme, and more especially of the kindergarten, is the attention it givs to the training of the social instincts. Indeed, this constitutes—as I hav attempted to show in my address to your body at the Boston meeting—the specific use of the kindergarten. The training which the child receivs in the kindergarten for *intercourse with equals* is something which the family cannot giv and which the school has heretofore offerd only incidentally, if at all. In this light, FROEBEL'S kindergarten appears as a sort of ideal society in which a generous self-assertion goes hand in hand with a rational self-sacrifice, in order to secure the greatest possibl individual and common happiness; a society which takes delight in aiding individual development, becaus it knows or feels that the most highly developt individuality confers the greatest benefit upon all concernd, is most useful in the common enterprises; a society in which each individual is ever redy to giv itself wholly to these common enterprises, becaus it knows or feels that its self-sacrifice will be amply repaid by its share in the common succes. The social games and the group-work are the chief means of this social training; yet, in addition, every exercise is greatly modified to adapt it to the requirements of social training.

A full sketch of FROEBEL'S work would, indeed, require more attention to the details of features which here could only be hinted; but my aim was chiefly to show that FROEBEL went far beyond his great predecessor in all directions in which the latter himself labord. I hope that, in addition to this, my remarks may hav proved to you that we hav stil much to do to attain his ideals and to apply to all educational fases the principls which he had time to apply fully only to erly training; that the work, as far as he has applied it to practice in his directions to mothers and kindergarteners, cannot be measured by the standard of the school, which stands on a narrower foundation and has narrower aims, but only by the child's life, and the child's *whole* life; and that, in du time, there must come a progress beyond him.

Adjourned to meet at 9 o'clock, Friday morning, July 16.

Fourth Day's Proceedings.

FRIDAY MORNING, *JULY* 16, 1880.

Prayer was offered by DR. I. W. ANDREWS, of Ohio.

W: D. HENKLE, of Ohio, as chairman of the committee appointed to announce the names of the members of the National Council of Education made the following report:

REPORT.

See pages 91, 92, 93, and 94.

John Hancock, of Ohio, called for the report of the Committee on Education and Crime appointed at Philadelphia, in 1879. The chairman, Dr. Joseph A. Paxson, being absent, the committee was, on motion, given further time, and J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, made chairman of the committee.

A temperance resolution offered by Mrs. M. A. Stone, of Connecticut, was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Dr. James McCosh, of New Jersey, read the following paper on

THE IMPORTANCE OF HARMONIZING THE PRIMARY, SECONDARY, AND COLLEGIATE SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION.

I. Primary Education.

Strange as it may seem, nobody, not even the Bureau of Education in Washington, seems to know what is the number of elementary schools in the United States. The reason is given "As many States and Territories do not report them ; some giving school districts only ; some school-houses and standards, as to what shall be called a school varying greatly in different localities." This fact is not very creditable to the country. It indicates the unsystematized character of education in many States of the Union and the great need of Associations, National and Local, to strengthen the Bureau of Education, in its endeavor to place before us the way in which, and the extent to which, the youth of the land are trained.

Half a century ago, a quarter of a century ago, the system of elementary education was, upon the whole, the best in the world; and foreign countries appointed commissions to enquire into and to report upon it. Since that time it has made considerable progress; but there are States, and some of these not new States, in which it has not advanced with the times, and is still in a backward condition. It seems to me that there are countries in the Old World, particularly in Great Britain, including Scotland, in which it is taking mightier strides than in America. When I was in Scotland three years ago, I was amazed at the improvement in the methods of instruction since I was a boy.

In a paper read before this Association in 1873, I ventured to refer to two points in which certain countries, such as Prussia and Britain, might be looked to by educationists and statesmen in America in order to discover whether there are not improvements there which they might profitably adopt. One of these is compulsory, or, to adopt the better phrase of Prof. Nordhoff's, obligatory education. Prussia has long adopted this principle, which has exercised the most beneficent influence on the character of the people. Of late years any school district in Britain may adopt it and carry it out; and already we see the results in many cities where the children are swept off the streets and are received into schools where they receive wholesome instruction, and are ready to be benefited by the efforts of Christian ministers and missionary agents, male and female, laboring to save them from vice and misery. No country needs this system of obligatory education so much as the United States, as it is liable to have poured into it the ignorance of all other lands.

The other point is that of the Supervision or Inspection of schools. Considerable advance has been made on this line of late years. A number of our schools are now under the direct supervision of well-educated and well-qualified superintendents. But the system is far from being universal, and it is not so well organized as in some other countries where every school is visited periodically and frequently by scholarly and well-remunerated inspectors, acquainted with the best modes of instruction in various countries, who examine every child, and in doing their work are above all local prepossessions and prejudices. Education would be greatly stimulated, as it appears to me, by each State having a system of superintendence, general and local, by highly-educated and well-trained superintendents.

But in this paper my special aim is to show that while the first and grand aim of national schools should be to give elementary instruction to the whole people, they should not lose sight of another important purpose. In many of the States there is an admirable system of graded schools, including Grammar Schools Normal Schools, and High Schools and a method by which children may rise from the one to the other. Many a promising youth in an obscure country district is discovered and set on the path of learning by his teacher or his minister or by some generous friend, or more frequently he is impelled by his own tastes and aspirations and he mounts from one round of the ladder to another till he reaches the university where he is trained for the highest walks of usefulness in the various professions, or he becomes eminent in literature, science, politics or philosophy. Many of the most illustrious men in the churches, in the medical art, at the bar, or in Congress, have risen by reason of the facilities placed at their disposal by the national system. In this way much talent and genius, gifts more precious far than our gold and silver mines, have been kept from being lost to the community and have added to the glory of our country. But this end can be attained only when the various parts of our system, lower and higher, are made to work into and with each other. This is far from being the case in every one of the United States. Americans often dwell on the circumstance that while in this country every man does not rise to be President of the United States, there is no obstacle in the way of his obtaining the honor if he has the talents and the virtues. In like way I hold it to be essential to the perfection of our republican system, that the child in the most obscure village or the most degraded alley of a great city, may, if he has the abilities and the perseverance, rise to be a doctor or a lawyer, or grace the halls of Congress or help to spread knowledge and truth all over the earth.

II. Secondary Instruction.

It is keenly discussed in the present day whether the State should provide anything higher for the people than the barest elementary education. It is very generally acknowledged that the government is under a moral obligation to instruct all the people to the extent of their being able to read and understand the laws for the breaking of which they are liable to be punished. But there are persons who maintain resolutely that the State is not required, nor even at liberty to furnish more out of the taxes that are compulsorily raised from the people.• In this controversy I am prepared to take the side of those who hold that while the State is imperatively required to impart an education to all sufficient to enable them to read the Bible and to know the laws of their country, it is also required by the highest considerations to provide judicious means of enabling those who thirst for higher attainments to rise to them, and thus give them the power of promoting the best interests of their country economically, intellectually, socially, and morally. The great nations of the earth all acknowledge this, such as Germany, Austria, France, Holland, England, Scotland, Ireland, Canada, even India, Australia, and other British Colonies. If America refuses to act as these countries do, she will undoubtedly fall behind them in the competition of nations for knowledge, for wealth and influence. If there are States of the American Union which, for the sake of a false theory of government, or in order to save a few dimes of taxation, refuse to institute these schools, they will be left behind by such States as Massachusetts, which owes its eminence mainly to its High Schools and Academies, which have sent so many youth to our Colleges, or to occupy the most important positions in the country.

But it is urged that the supporting of these schools would be virtually taxing one part of the community to benefit another. The answer is at hand. The whole community receives the profit by a highly-educated people being trained. The High Schools should be so located and furnished that all have access to them, the poor as well as the rich, and the rich as well as the poor. Of all people the poor will receive the most good from them, as they will be thereby supplied with the only means by which they can rise to the same platform as the rich, who may surely be called on to contribute a small portion of their wealth to those who are less highly favored than themselves. But then it is said that we are rearing too many educated men. I simply deny that this is so. Scientists tell us that we cannot increase the amount of physical energy in the universe; but we can increase the amount of intellectual power by increasing the amount of "knowledge which is power." The community which has the largest amount of it will always be the most influential. It is to be remembered that the number of persons seeking high scholarship, which requires severe study, will always be limited; and the field for men possessed of it is not one country, but the world, and the geography which they learn tells them how wide it is; and they will find work in it enough till they bring about the millennium, when they will also have still higher labor, but without toil. If it be alleged that a high education may rear only the knowing and accomplished rogue, I admit this may be so if the education is merely secular, merely scientific, that is, educates only one-half or less than one-half the man, but if it is also moral and religious, that is, cultivating our whole nature and especially our higher nature, it will tend to raise a generation who, as a whole, will be good members of society, and propagate a healthy spirit. Besides, the State has always *a means of limiting,* should it find it necessary, the number of those who seek a high education, and casting aside those who have not the capacity or the endurance: they may increase the standard of examination for admission and graduation so as to secure that only the highest minds pass. This is effectually done at West Point, where the numbers of military officers is kept within narrow limits by the severity of the tests by which the candidates are tried.

It is reported to me that "as to the number of Public High Schools it is impossible to make an absolute statement, from the fact that in several of the States such schools are not reported, and that in others the reports include all that profess to teach any higher branches, *i. e.*, beyond the grammar-school curriculum. From a careful estimate, however, the number perhaps to be classed as High Schools, appears about 2000 in the whole United States. The number of Academies reporting to this Bureau in 1878 was 1227; whole number on our list, 1667. Preparatory schools obtaining higher academic rank, 126 additional."

It is of the utmost moment that these intermediate schools should work in harmony with the primary schools on the one hand, and the colleges on the other. They should be ready to take up the youths at the stage at which they leave the lower schools, which should always be training a number of boys for the High School, directly or indirectly through the Grammar School. Where the one ends the other should begin. There should be a means provided whereby the son of a tradesman or even a day-laborer, should be able of himself if he has the purpose and perseverance, or aided by some one who discovers his merit, to mount from the one to the other. In this way "the rich and poor meet together, the LORD being maker of them all."

But it is equally important that the High School and Normal School should educate for the College. This is not sufficiently attended to in some, I believe I might say in most, of our State systems. In the College with which I am connected, we do not owe much to the schools in the States around us. In some States it does not seem attended to at all. In some places there is a wide gap, with an evident jealousy between the colleges and the secondary schools, the colleges keeping themselves at a haughty distance, and the latter making no effort to train young men for them. It is a fact that boys who wish to enter college have to leave the State Schools for other and more expensive ones, or it may be to call in the aid of private teachers, who may or may not be competent. This is one of the greatest disadvantages under which, as I can testify, some of our Colleges labor. In some States that I could name the High Schools or Normal Schools are so arranged as to make it appear as if they were sufficient for the thorough training of youth without ever pointing to any thing higher. And yet it is a powerful means of stimulating the lower classes in a school, of raising our lower schools, to be ever showing a higher model. Dr. ARNOLD elevated the whole action of his school by his 'Fifth Form'; and the High School might give an upward tendency to all its classes by having a class of Greek inciting boys onward to college, and higher attainments. The impetus under a spirited teacher might be felt in all the classes from the highest to the lowest. No system of drill, however perfect, could impart the same life as a set of boys setting out every year for college, and there distinguishing themselves.

The more advanced countries of the world pay great attention to the connecting of schools and colleges. The Volk-schulen in Germany give instruction to fit mechanics and laboring men to be useful citizens. The gymnasien, which are, upon the whole, the highest secondary schools in the world, impart a thorough education in the Humanities, in Greek, Latin, the lower Mathematics, German and religion, with some history, thus preparing a student for the universities. The Real-schulen substitute Modern Languages, French, and English for the gymnasium course, and then the pupils get special training in Architecture, Civil, Mechanical, and Mining Engineering, Agriculture and the more practical sciences. This makes the whole educational system a unit, one part fitting into another, and the whole meant to make good citizens. There seem to be 450 such higher schools in Germany taught by learned professors, and educating upwards of 81,000 pupils.

In England there is no official connection between the elementary schools and the colleges, and it is this that makes the colleges in that country so few. But the Endowed Schools of England which are commonly rich and taught by Masters of the highest order regard it as their greatest glory to prepare pupils for the great universities of Oxford and Cambridge. In Scotland the Burgh Schools which are to be found in every important town, prepare young men for College, and the very parochial schools, which often teach Greek, Latin, and Mathematics, prepare a considerable body of pupils for the four universities.

Coming to this country we find in New England the High Schools, required in every township, giving a high education, and the fine old Academies drawing youths from all States in the Union, preparing them for College, and making the New-England Colleges so prosperous. In Michigan the University and High Schools work into each other by State law. When the State University at Ann Arbor is informed by any High-School authorities of their desire to be put on its approved list, it sends a committee to inquire into its courses and methods of instruction. If these are found to come up to its standard, the school is sanctioned and the graduates are allowed to enrol themselves in the Freshman class of the University, in any course for which they have been prepared, without any University examination. This has given the University a mighty power in the State and has swelled the numbers attending it. The success of the plan has led to its being adopted in Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, in some of which, however, there does not seem to be the same guarded examination as in Michigan.

This precise plan cannot or at least will not be adopted in all States. In many States there are at the present time a number of Colleges of a superior order; these will not consent that one of them by being made a State University should have the great body of the young allured to it by the facilities held out. In most of the States the religious denominations will insist on having colleges suited to them. Not that they teach anything sectarian; but they believe that vital religion should be at the basis of the training of the young; and they are not satisfied that there can be much life and power in the neutral religion taught in the State universities where there is a constant fear of offence being given to persons of various religious professions or of none. Many will insist that in the College in which their sons study at the critical period of their life religious instruction and worship should permeate the course. It is not needful to inquire whether parents are justified in demanding this. It is enough for me that they do so and will continue to do so.

Now is there no way in which the upper schools can be connected with the specially religious or denominational colleges? I believe that this may be done to the benefit both of colleges and schools. Let the colleges come to a substantial agreement as to the standard of entrance. I have before me "A Comparative View of the Requisitions for Admission to Fifteen American Colleges," drawn out by Dr. White, formerly of Cleveland. I find that there is a wonderful agreement among them all, taking substantially the same books and subjects, some, however, requiring a little more than others, and all admitting substitutes. There is then in our higher colleges as great a uniformity as can be expected, or indeed desired. Let steps be taken by the schools to bring up their pupils who wish to go to college to this standard. Having been so taught, the boys, or rather their parents, will select the college which suits them. This system would suit every State, both in the State and Denomination Colleges. Surely the universities and upper schools should be prepared for their good, and in order to extend their usefulness, to fall in with this system and act upon it.

It is to secure this end that I have come to this meeting and prepared this paper. At this moment there are in some of our States scarcely any facilities given to enable the brighter youths of our country to rise from the secondary schools to the higher literary and philosophical culture to be had in our colleges. In such States the rising mind of the country is arrested in its onward progress.

III. THE COLLEGEATE SYSTEM.

The number of Colleges in the United States is commonly stated as being 400. I am indebted to General Eaton for a more accurate statement: "As to the number of Chartered Colleges in the United States, an absolute answer cannot be given, from want of returns on this point in some cases. But I shall not be far from the truth if I say that of about 266 colleges for women 188 have charters from the State, and that of about 375 for young men, or for both sexes, some 350 have such charters. This does not reckon 44 Agricultural and Scientific Schools which would claim collegiate rank."

What are we to do with all these colleges, a larger number than is to be found in any other country in the world? Some have proposed to burn one half of the male colleges in order thereby to benefit the other half. There are certainly in our Eastern States new colleges set up which tend, like drowning men, to drag each other down, by lowering the standard at entrance and at graduation. The public press has amused us with the picture of a man with little education himself, but who has earned half a million dollars, resolving in a bosom filled with philanthropy, to leave his money to endow a grand new university in his native village. One half of the money is laid out in buildings, which will be his monument, and the rest is devoted to the salaries of professors. A minister, who has not succeeded as a pastor, is appointed president and has to teach religion, and all mental, moral, and political science. A dungeon of learning is taken out of an academy to instruct in mathematics, physics, astronomy, geology, and natural history. A young man who is a native of the place, and who has stood high in a neighboring college is chosen to take the student through Greek, Latin, English, and French. Most important of all, a reputable gentleman with a face that never blushes and a loose and flattering tongue is appointed financial agent, procures lists of the benevolent gentlemen in the great cities, and obsequiously waits upon them. The university is called Tomlinson after its founder, whose name is thus handed down to posterity. Several of the ministers in the neighborhood with the senator of the district and a few lawyers are appointed Trustees. The college has a library of a sickly miscellaneous character with five thousand volumes, which the friends of .the institution can easily spare out of their own collections, and containing many duplicates of Euclid and Bible dictionaries; and a tradesman of the town has supplied a microscope, a telescope, a blowpipe, and many ingenious instruments. The university is opened with eclât, the senator procures a power of granting degrees, and it appears in General EATON's report with eighty-eight students drawn from the town and from the religious denomination to which Mr. TOMLINSON belonged. The pupils are admitted easily at an early age, and are taught to read an ordinary Greek and Latin book; they go through Euclid, trigonometry, and natural philosophy, and receive lessons in logic, ethics, and religion from the president; a large number of them however not being able to spell accurately or write grammatically.

While I have given this picture I am bound to add that it is a caricature. All our smaller colleges are not unmitigated evils; some of them supply a good substantial education to young men who would never go to colleges at a distance. I should deplore to find education confined in America to a few aristocratic colleges, some of which are becoming very expensive and extravagant. Some of our smaller colleges are teaching faithfully the old fundamental branches of classics, science, and philosophy, which have fed our fathers and made them strong, may be producing as many fresh, solid, and independent minds as our big universities where youths are lost in the crowd and never come in personal contact with their teachers, where they are not taught the old disciplinary studies and become confused in the multiplicity of new topics, and where the aim is evidently to produce specialists rather than broad, comprehensive minds. After all in our great colleges where so many enticing articles are spread out before them to feed on, our youth can partake only a few, otherwise they would be surfeited and burdened and the few they select may not be best fitted to nurture and strengthen the mind. I cannot forget that our greatest poet, LONGFELLOW, and our most original novelist, HAWTHORNE, were educated at comparatively-small colleges among the pine-groves of Maine, and that our present President of the United States, and one of the two candidates for the presidency were reared at not very large colleges. So let things take their natural course, and the principle of "the struggle for existence" and the "survival of the fittest" will come into play; and the weak and unworthy as not meeting the wants of the country will be starved out, and the useful being sustained by the donations of the wealthy will become stronger and stronger and take higher forms of life.

Meanwhile I can point out better ways in which Mr. TOMLINSON may carry out his benevolent intentions. He might found in one of our larger colleges a set of scholarships to be earned by competition among those who come from the locality to which he is attached, and which he is anxious to benefit. Or if he is bent on having an institution in his town where he made his money, let him endow not a university, but an educational institution of an enlarged and useful character to give education to all who wish it, and have made a certain amount of progress at the elementary schools. By all means let there be taught both Greek and Latin, for these furnish us the most perfect specimens of literature, and are the means of opening to us the ancient world, with its history. But let there be other branches occupying quite as high a place. Chief among these let there be English and English Literature with their riches and English Composition. Let there be Modern Languages, at least French and German. Let there be the more fundamental and useful sciences, always leaving the more recondite branches to higher institutions, for which they would create a taste. Let there also be mental sciences, such as logic and morality, to teach men that they have minds, and to counteract the materialistic spirit of the age. Let them have religion warm and decided, such as is held by the great body of professing Christians in this country; but let them have "a conscience clause," to secure that no creed is forced on any one. Let his Academy, so it might be called, as being an honored name, be open to all persons of either sex who can stand an examination on certain prescribed subjects. Let the teachers be all scholars, thoroughly masters of the branches they teach, and if possible, graduates of colleges. This institution, if situated in a town, or a central position, will take with the locality from the first, and be a means of doing immeasurable good. Instead of having only 80 or so studying for the learned professions, and who might be far better taught at our larger colleges, it might have from 150 to 400 young men and women prepared to take and retain a high and respected position in all the various walks of life, public and private, as bankers, merchants, storekeepers, farmers, and tradesmen, who would have a refining influence on those around them, and become, as fathers and mothers, fitted to train their children. It would be a great benefit to the community if a portion of our so-called colleges would consent to take this position which would be far more honorable than their present one where they have to be perpetually begging and lowering the standard of scholarship in order to their being able to draw in students.

Such institutions would fit in admirably to our elementary and grammar schools, and would draw even from our High Schools as furnishing a wider range of study. They would give an education of a broad and liberal character to all who have a taste for it, while at the same time they would not unfit ordinary men and women, as a higher erudition and a more exclusive study might do, for the ordinary vocations of life. None of the evils apprehended from the co-education of the sexes would spring up, as the pupils would be mostly living with their parents or under their eye. These academies would serve much the same purpose as the gymnasia of Germany, with this superiority, that they would teach women as well as men, so that they might spread a humanizing influence on those around, and mould the minds of their children.

But let it be distinctly understood that such institutions should always be made a means of aiding and strengthening our colleges and universities. In all of them let there be a scholarly professor, teaching Latin, Greek, and ancient literature, which might not be required of all, but be open to all, and specially for the benefit of those who go on to a collegiate education. All such academies should be able to send up pupils thoroughly prepared for the Freshman class, and the best would send to the Sophmore or even the Junior class. This no doubt might withdraw a few boys from the Freshman class. But this would not be an unmitigated evil, as it would enable colleges to give more of their time and thought to that higher learning which ought to be the higher work of colleges. As such institutions become multiplied all over our cities and populous centres, they would allure and prepare many to enter classes higher and lower, who cannot at present find schools to have them ready for any college.

I venture to affirm that by such means our system of education would be brought to a unity ; no unseemly and weakening gaps and rents would be left, and each part would strengthen the other, the national mind would be thoroughly educated, and the highest interests of our country advanced.

An excursion on Lake Chautauqua having been announced for the evening, the paper assigned for the evening was then taken up. This was a paper by Dr. F. A. March, of Pennsylvania, on

THE RELATION OF EDUCATORS TO SPELLING-REFORM.

[In the printing of this paper, the spelling of Prof. March has been followed as indicated by him. It will be observed that the changes do not go so far in some respects as those indicated on p. 18, while in others they go farther. If proof had been sent to Prof. March he would, doubtless, have made more changes than he has.]

Spelling is the orderly naming of the letters which make up a written word. In a perfect alfabet in which the letters ar rightly named, it is also an utterance ot the sounds which make up the spoken word; for the essential idea of a perfect alfabet is that each elementary sound has its own sign, and each sign its own sound.

But no language has a perfect alfabet. Alfabetic writing is a sort of growth, or development from picture writing, and, like other growths, it needs making over for the use of man. The English alfabetic writing is an unweeded garden.

The mixture of Norman and Anglo-Saxon from which modern English sprung, produced much confusion in the powers of the letters. It was followd by great changes in pronunciation which stil further confounded the confusion, and by attempts to correct the spelling in accordance with etymology. Most of this last was done by teachers of Latin who knew nothing of Anglo-Saxon or Norman, and they falsified a large part of the language by spelling it so as to make it look as tho it wer derived from Latin; they put an *s* in the Anglo-Saxon *iland* to make it look as tho it came from *insula*. They added *ue* to *tung* to make it look like *lingua*. They made the old *rime* into *rhyme* as tho it wer latinized Greek. We hav long ago ceast to try to keep sounds and writing together, and accurate spelling has to be lerned with great labor, word by word. No one can tell beforehand how any word that he hears spoken wil be spelt, nor how any word that he sees written wil be pronounct. Seventeen letters in the hundred ar silent.

Three years ar spent in our primary schools in lerning to read and spell a little. The German advances as far in a twelvemonth. Wo to the child who attempts to use reason in spelling. It is a mark of promise not to spell easily. The whole process is stupefying and perverting. Large numbers of children come to hate the sight of a book. There wer 5,500,000 illiterates reported at the last census of the United States. But Christianity cannot put forth half her strength where she cannot use her presses. Republics fall to ruin when the peple become blind and bad. It has been computed that we throw away $15,000,000 a year paying teachers for addling our children with bad spelling, and at least $100,000,000 more, paying printers and publishers for garnishing our books and papers with silent letters.

Such is the evil to be reformed. What can we do about it? Many schemes hav been put forward by one and another, but it wil perhaps be sufficient to state what has been proposed by the Philological Association and Spelling-Reform Associations of America and Great Britain.

The first practical action taken by the American Philological Association, was in 1875, and is in the form of a report, as follows:

"It does not seem desirable to attempt such sweeping changes as to leav the general speech without a standard, or to render it unintelligible to common readers; but the changes adopted in our standards of the written speech hav laggd far behind those made in the spoken language, and the present seems to be a favorable time for a rapid reform of many of the worst discrepancies. The committee think that a considerable list of words may be made, in which the spelling may be changed, by dropping silent letters and otherwise, so as to make them better conform to the analogies of the language and draw them nearer to our sister languages and to a general alfabet, and yet leav them recognizable by common readers; and that the publication of such a list under the authority of this Association would do much to accelerate the progress of our standards and the general reform of our spelling."

The Committee appointed to make the list and to report on the reform in general ar Professors W. D. Whitney and J. Hammond Trumbull of Yale College; Professor F. J. Child of Harvard University, and Professor S. S. Haldeman, of the University of Pennsylvania, with Professor F. A. March of Lafayette College as Chairman. These eminent professors of Yale and Harvard and the University of Pennsylvania ar known wherever there is any knowledge of the science of language to be among the soundest and ripest of scholars. They ar no hobby riders on this subject, hav no pet schemes, and hav a full knowledge of all the difficulties of the work. They made no haste. In 1876 they reported on the general principles by which the reform should be governed, in 1877 on the ideal alfabet. In 1878 they began the list in the following report:

"In accordance with the plan of preparing a list of words for which an amended spelling may be adopted concurrent with that now in use, as suggested by President J. HAMMOND TRUMBULL, at the session of 1875, and favorably reported upon by the committee of that session, the committee now present the following words as the beginning of such list, and recommend them for immediate use: *Ar, catalog, definit, gard, giv, hav, infinit, liv, tho, thru, wisht.*"

Work on the list is still going on. The Philological Society of England has now in 1880 appointed a Committee to prepare a similar list. Let us look at the classes of words which should be put in it.

1. Words in which there is unfonetic spelling which suggests mistaken etymology, such as *island, tongue,* and *rhyme,* just now referred to; *sovereign, foreign* (not from *regnum*); *ache; delight; comptroller; glamour; scissors; scent; whole; could;* and the like.

2. Words in which unfonetic spelling suggests mistaken history: *debt* suggests that it came directly from the Latin *debitus* instead of the French *dette,* but the old English was *dette,* and the *b* is a modern insertion. So of *doubt, receipt, feign,* and a very large number of words with a double consonant suggesting a Latin prefix; *accompany, accomplish, address, affirm, appease, appraise, arrears, assuage,* and the like.

3. Words which hav letters contributing nothing to ancient history, and falsifying the present. Words ending in silent *e* after a short syllable ar examples. This *e* tells no history, it is prevailingly an orthografic expedient to denote that the vowel before it is long; it lengthens *fat* into *fate, bit* into *bite, fin* into *fine, not* into *note,* and the like. Whenever it follows a short vowel, therefore, it is false as well as wasteful: *genuin* is standard English pronunciation, *genuine* is a vulgar corruption; *hav* spells the word intended, *have* should rime with *gave, slave, knave, rave,* etc. We ought to write *imbecil, medicin, treatis, favorit, hypocrit, infinit, indicativ, subjunctiv,* and the like. Several hundred words belong to this class, in great part lerned terms from Greek or Latin, and common to many languages. To scholars they look more natural and scholarly, as the Germans and most of the Europeans write them, without the final *e.* Five of the eleven new spellings recommended by the Philological Association ar examples of it—*definit, giv, hav, infinit, liv.*

4. Words which retain silent letters which ar peculiar combinations of some foren language, such as *ue* as it appears in *catalogue, demagogue, dialogue, pedagogue, harangue, colleague* and the like; it is a French contrivance to distinguish the sound of *g* in that language. With us it is only a disguise of the original Greek and Latin as well as the living English. Not unlike it is the *me* of *programme,* and the *te* of *cigarette, etiquette, parquette, coquette* and the like. Harder to give up ar the unpronounceable Greek combinations, the *phth* of *phthisic,* Milton's *tizzic,* Italian and

Spanish *tisica ; p* in *pneumatic ; g* in *apothegm*, and the like. *Ph* in *alphabet* and *phonetic* is a post-Augustan way of representing the Greek *f* in Roman letters.

5. Words whose early English spelling givs the present pronunciation, but which ar now spelt differently ; such as many words in *ea* pronounct as *e* short ; *feather*, Anglo-Saxon *fedher*, German *feder ; leather*, Anglo-Saxon *ledher*, German *leder ; zealous*, Latin *zelosus*, and the like.

The words in these classes are very numerous. An extended list of them will be publisht for general use and adoption, during the coming year. They all seem to be proper objects of reform, even to those who wish to preserv the general spelling of the language, as they only correct errors which hav been embodied in it, and tend to make it a truthful record, and reliable material for history. If they would seriously enter on the reform of such words as these, we should make rapid progress towards a wel-spelt language.

To be in favor of changing the spellings in such words as these, in our newspapers, periodicals, and elsewhere, as fast as the convenience of the public permits, is to be in favor of spelling reform, as it is now urged by the Philological Associations.

It should not be overlookt, however, that the masters of the Science of Language who ar leading the spelling reformers, believ that no one who fully comprehends the extent and relations of these amendments, will fail to approve a thoro fonetic spelling. That is the ideal to aim at, and it is necessary to use the ideal fonetic alfabet of the future as a guide in making the changes in the spelling of particular words. Such an alfabet has its immediate use, also, as a key alfabet in dictionaries, and other works where pronunciation is given, or fonetics discust, and in teaching the beginnings of reading.

And, now, the relation of educators to the reform, what has it been? What should it be?

Almost all the filologists ar educators. In 1874, I had occasion, as President of the American Philological Association, to mention in the annual address, the troubles of filologists with our inconsistent and ambiguous alfabet, and their desire for a wel-spelt language. On that hint, I suppose, I was invited to address the State Teachers' Association of Pennsylvania on the subject, and at the meeting of 1875, I enlargd on these topics, and exprest the hope that teachers and investigators might unite in an effort for reform.

In response it was said by leading members of the Association, that they had always wisht to hav our spelling improved, that they always had supposed that these strange spellings wer preservd for the benefit of the filologists, and that if the filologists did not want them, nobody else did. Resolutions wer accordingly past, and a Committee appointed to act in conjunction with the Philological Association in favor of Reform.

Similar action was taken the same year by the State Teachers' Association of New Jersey.

In 1876 an International Convention, in behalf of amending English Orthography, was held at Philadelphia, and a Spelling-Reform Association was formd. Most of the members were teachers. They appeald to the American Philological Association to tell them what to do. The action of that Association has been briefly set forth.

Action in favor of reform has since been taken by the State Teachers' Associations of New York, Ohio, Iowa, Massachusetts, Wisconsin, Missouri, and Virginia; by the National Educational Association, the American Institute of Instruction, and many smaller associations of educators. In two or three State Associations there hav been lively discussions without further action. The Board of Education of the City of Chicago, in in 1878, unanimously adopted a resolution, "That the Secretary of the Board correspond with the principal school boards and educational associations of the country, with a view to co-operation in the reform of English spelling". Some part of the action above referd to has been taken in answer to this Chicago appeal. Much of it is in the form of Memorials to the Legislatures of the United States and the several States, asking them to appoint Commissions to examin and report upon the reform. State Commissions hav been authorized by the Legislatures of Connecticut, Wisconsin, and Pennsylvania. The memorials to Congress hav receivd favorable consideration from the Committee of the House on Education and Labor, one of whom, Mr. Ballou, of Rhode Island, has reported a bill constituting a Commission.

Professors in our Colleges and Normal Schools hav promoted the formation of Spelling-Reform Associations among Students. The experience of the University of Illinois, and of Oberlin College, indicate that wherever an ernest member of a good western College will lead the way, the whole institution, substantially will join the reform.

In England the latest phase of the spelling-reform movement is very similar to that in America. In 1876 the National Union of Elementary Teachers past a resolution in favor of a royal commission to inquire into the spelling of the language; it was taken up by the school boards and eminent educators all thru the country, and finally presented in 1878 to the Lord President of the Council.

Both in America and Great Britain the Educational Journals hav opend their columns freely to the discussion of the reform, and some of them hav used amended spelling in part of their pages. Broadsides of opinions in favor of the reform from eminent educators by the hundred hav been publisht.

In all this copious expression of interest I do not know a single scholar or eminent educator of the new generation who has come out in favor of the old spelling. Two or three very respectable old functionaries I hav known to protest against trying to get rid of it.

This state of opinion among teachers was almost a matter of course. Few professions hav changed as much as teaching in the last half century. The old spirit and method which had their insignia in the rod hav past away. A new spirit of love and progress animates the teacher of to-day. The ablest minds rejoice to serv the profession. They study the children, invent apparatus and methods, write books for them, make art and nature tributary to their improvement and enjoyment. It was impossible that the cries of generation after generation over the puzzles of spelling should pass unheard.

Our American teachers hav long workt at the problem of improving the methods of teaching reading. We hav many skilfully-arranged primers and charts with beautiful pictorial illustrations. We hav the fonic method, the word method, the word-picture method, the fonetic method. We hav LEIGH'S pronouncing orthography, an invention of modified letters, by the use of which, in printed books, one or two years of school life ar saved in learning to read. Professor RICHARDS, of Washington, D. C., has also devised an excellent method of applying fonetic principles to teaching the beginnings of reading without the use of new letters.

But all these contrivances of letters and methods are complicated machinery to teach an unteachable, whimsical mass of anomalies; they ar poor shifts to which we ar driven by the want of a proper alfabet, and reasonable spelling.

And so it is easy to see why teachers hav been, and will be, the main promoters, and the best hope of the Spelling Reform. They need the reform most. They understand it best. They must teach it to the generation who ar to use it. It will lighten the most irksome of their labors. It will giv them time for important studies.

As fast and as far as the general assent of the community can be won, teachers will be prompt to use amended spelling in the schools.

It may surely be hoped that they will do their full share towards winning the general assent. For this, little more is needed than speaking out in favor of improvement, so that writing and spelling may no longer be thought of as matters of taste, but may be recognized everywhere as machinery of communication, like the telegraf and printing press, which everybody expects to improve, day by day. Thousands of words had their spelling improved in the last generation, mainly thru the influence of WEBSTER and a few scholars with him. Thousands more ar waiting the assent of the intelligent public. Our generation ought to make the more rapid progress in proportion, as we can more easily communicate and combine for any good end. One convention of the National Educational Association may secure a more powerful concentration of scholarly authority, than WEBSTER could gain in his whole life.

The Committee on the National Teachers' Life Insurance Company made the following

REPORT.

Your committee appointed to examine the plan and principles of the National Teachers' Life Insurance Company, beg leave to regret that we have not had time to give the subject the critical business examination necessary to an intelligent report, and that we cannot now do more than to commend the incorporators, and its plan of operation to the careful consideration of teachers seeking life insurance or life annuities.

JEROME ALLEN.
GUSTAVUS J. ORR.
W: D. HENKLE.

W: D. **Henkle** then announced that a copy of the July number of the Chautauqua Assembly Herald would be given to each member of the Association, at the Treasurer's table, with the compliments of the Publishers, and the Rev. **James P. Mills**, Travelling Agent.

Adjourned to meet at 4 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

At 3 P. M., before the regular meeting of the General Association, it was on motion

Resolved, That the body of representatives of the National Educational Association, informally called together to hear statements in regard to Kindergarten work, respectfully request the executive officers of the National Educational Association, especially to provide for the representation of the Kindergarten at its next annual meeting, and for the presentation of a paper upon the true relation of the Kindergarten to common public-school instruction.

At 4 P. M. Association met.

Zalmon Richards, of Washington, D. C., presented from the Committee the following

REPORT ON NECROLOGY.

Your Committee would respectfully continue their Report, from their partial report, made last year:

In the first place, we beg leave to correct an unfortunate mistake in our last report, into which, we are pleased to find that our Secretary did not fall, in publishing our Proceedings. While preparing said report, we were told that Mr. L. **Van Bokkelen**, our ninth President, had departed this life. But we are happy now to report that Mr. **Van Bokkelen** is still numbered with the living, so far as we know.

In addition to the names of T. W. **Valentine**, and Miss **Henrietta B. Haines**, reported last year, we regret to be obliged to report the names of Dr. **Daniel Read**, of Columbia, Mo., Dr. W. H. **McGuffey**, of the University of Va., Mr. D. H. **Wells**, of Iowa City, Iowa; Mr. **John A. Norris**, of Columbus, Ohio, and Mr. **Caleb Mills**, of Crawfordsville, Ind.

We also regret, that we have been unable to gather many facts in relation to the lives and characters of our departed friends. Unfortunately, the membership of our Association is not perpetuated by constitution, nor by regular attendance, and renewal of membership at our annual gatherings.

The transient character of our membership does not tend to develop a proper fraternity of feeling; nor the formation of such acquaintances, as will best develop associational sympathy. But for these facts, our necrological reports would possess more interest. We are able, however, to present facts of interest, in regard to the life and character of Dr. **Daniel Read**, which will be given for this Report by Mr. **Sheldon**, one of your Committee, and embodied in this report.

We shall, however, be pleased if any member present, can give us any new facts of interest, in regard to any of our departed members. Besides, we should be glad to receive the names of any other members, who may have died within the past, or any previous years.

We recommend, therefore, to all the members of this Association, that, whenever they learn of the death of any member, they report the fact, and all matters of interest in relation to the life and character of such members, to the Committee on necrology.

Z. RICHARDS.
W. E. SHELDON.

Mr. President:—

Your Committee believe it would not be inappropriate for this Association on this occasion to notice the great loss which the cause of education has sustained in the death of Dr. BARNAS SEARS—Although Dr. SEARS was not a constitutional member, yet it is well known to most of our members, that he has frequently attended our meetings, and has addressed especially the Department of Superintendence, and has always manifested a sympathy for the Association—Therefore:

Resolved, That the members of this Association have learned, with deep regret, and profound sorrow, that by the order of Divine Providence, one of our great leaders and co-laborers in the cause of Education, has been removed from this scene of his earthly labors.

Resolved, That this expression of our sorrow, and of our sincere sympathy, be communicated to the family and relatives of our lamented co-laborer.

G. J. ORR, of Georgia, spoke as follows in reference to the late

REV. BARNAS SEARS.

Mr. President!

I rise to perform a mournful, and yet, in a certain sense, a pleasing duty. When the wires bore news throughout the country of the death of BARNAS SEARS, the hearts of multitudes, everywhere, were saddened. While he was not a member of the Association, it is fitting that we take proper notice of the loss of such a man. It is well known to this body that he was born in New England, that for a number of years he was Secretary of the Board of Education of the State of Massachusetts—that he was, for a great while, connected with Madison University, New York, as Professor, and afterwards, with BROWN University, as President—and that he crowned his useful career by most efficient service as General Agent of the Trustees of the PEABODY Fund.

His was a great mind. He was quick to perceive, prompt to decide, and firm as a rock when a conclusion was reached. He was a scholar, a patriot, a philanthropist, and, what is better than all, a sincere Christian. I shall always esteem it as one of the greatest privileges of my life that I enjoyed his confidence and friendship. No section can claim such a man as BARNAS SEARS. His great heart, like that of his friend, the founder of the noble benefaction he was called to administer, took in the whole country. The South begs leave to unite with New England and with the West in shedding tears at the bier of their common friend. My heart is too full, sir, to say more.

I conclude by moving the adoption of the following resolutions:

Resolved, That, in the death of BARNAS SEARS, the cause of Education has lost one of its wisest, ablest, most steadfast friends.

Resolved, That, while he was not a member of the National Educational Association, still, as a body of co-laborers in the same field, we feel bereaved.

Resolved, That this expression of our sorrow be conveyed to the family and friends of the lamented dead.

The resolutions were adopted.

On motion of A. J. RICKOFF, of Ohio, E. E. WHITE, of Indiana, was requested to prepare a tribute to the memory of BERNARD MALLON for publication in the report of the proceedings.

Memorial remarks on Mr. MALLON were made by E. E. WHITE, of Indiana, and G. J. ORR and S. G. BINKLEY, of Georgia.

When reaching this portion of the volume in printing, the Secretary wrote a letter to Dr. E. E. WHITE, fearing he had forgotten the duty assigned to him. The following is the reply received which is printed in full in justice to Dr. WHITE. Any attempt at culling from the reply as suggested at the close, might result in marring it.

LAFAYETTE, IND., Nov. 24, 1880.

Dear Dr. Henkle:

Your postal of the 22nd inst., asks if my "Tribute to the Memory of BERNARD MALLON" is ready. I am sorry to say that it is not.

I have been under the impression that I was *added* to a committee to prepare such a tribute, but, not hearing from the chairman, I have neglected the duty assigned to me.

When at Chautauqua, I expected to correspond with Col. JOHN LYNCH, and thus aid my memory in recalling several incidents in Mr. MALLON's early life, but, unfortunately, I do not know Col. LYNCH's present residence. Under the circumstances, I will venture to give several reminiscences, though my memory does not serve me very faithfully.

I first met BERNARD MALLON at the meeting of the National Educational Association, held in Nashville, Tenn., August, 1868. He introduced himself as an interested reader of the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, and I recognized in him my only subscriber at Savannah, Ga. The acquaintance there formed between us grew into a friendship which years only increased. He took part in several of the discussions, (notably one on "Model Schools in connection with Normal Schools," which showed a familiar acquaintance with normal training) and, at the farewell session, he spoke as the representative of the South. He was elected one of the vice-presidents.

In 1869, owing to ill health, he resigned the Superintendency of the Schools of Savannah, but was subsequently induced to resume the principalship of the Girls' High School,—a position formerly held by him. In 1871, he wrote for the MONTHLY an account of the new school system of Georgia, giving it his cordial support, but pointing out its weakness. The communication showed great familiarity with the school system of the Northern States.

In May, 1871, I had the pleasure of attending the meeting of the Georgia Teachers' Association, held in Columbus. For the invitation, I was indebted to Mr. MALLON who did every thing in his power to make my visit pleasant. I was much in his company, and we talked over many subjects connected with public education. His whole soul was enlisted in the success of the new school system, just inaugurated. His earnest desire was to see a good school within the reach of every child in the State. His familiar acquaintance with Northern educators and schools, led me to ask for an explanation. He told me that he once lived in New York, and that he attended the State Normal School at Albany when it was in charge of the lamented DAVID PAGE, there receiving his training and his inspiration as a teacher. This told the story.

He was the organizer and the life of the Association, taking special pains to secure the consideration of topics connected with methods of teaching and school management. He read a very valuable paper on language lessons in elementary schools. In 1873, he extended to me a second invitation to attend the meeting of the Georgia Association and, to strengthen the urgency of his request, he sent by telegraph a draft to meet my expenses.

I met Mr. MALLON the last time in Philadelphia in 1876. He had come up from the meeting of the National Educational Association at Baltimore to see the Centennial Exhibition, and we met at the Atlas Hotel. He expressed an earnest desire to see Col. JOHN LYNCH, of Louisiana, formerly of Ohio, who was one of the Commissioners. He gave me a touching account of their early acquaintance. They both came from Ireland when young men, and located together in a village in the State of New York. While there they both renounced the Catholic religion and became Protestants, and resolved to obtain an education. For mutual protection and support, they roomed together while in the preparatory school, and had most things in common. After due preparations had been made, he entered PAGE's School at Albany to prepare himself to be a teacher, and subsequently went South. Mr. LYNCH went to Ohio. "I have not seen LYNCH," he added, "for more than twenty years, and would give much to see the whole-souled fellow again. As I have stood as earnestly for the South as he has for the North, I am not sure that he will think as much of seeing me."

I had just come from Col. LYNCH's office, and I agreed to arrange for a meeting between them at the hotel. Col. LYNCH came at the appointed hour, not knowing why I had sent for him. Mr. MALLON was greatly agitated when the Colonel's arrival was announced. I said, "Col. LYNCH, do you know this gentleman?" He looked a moment and, raising his hands, exclaimed, "BERNARD MALLON, GOD bless you!" They both embraced and wept. I left them alone to talk over old times, and subsequently often met them walking arm in arm.

Mr. BERNARD MALLON was a true teacher, and a most efficient school officer. His work at Savannah as teacher and superintendent, and in Atlanta as the organizer and head of its present excellent system of graded schools, has already yielded beneficent results. When the writer spoke on public education in Atlanta, in 1871, there was not a public school in the city. In less than a year Mr. MALLON was called to the task of organizing a system of graded schools, and in 1876 there were few cities in all the South that had so excellent a school system as Atlanta. The schools of Savannah and Atlanta are his enduring monument. To few men is Georgia so much indebted as she is to this worthy disciple of DAVID PAGE.

His heart was in the normal work, and ill health induced him to resign his position in Atlanta to take charge of the new State Normal School in Texas. Here his frail constitution, long subject to over-drafts, gave way, and his new labors ended before they were fairly begun. In his death the cause of public education in the South lost its truest representative, and the profession of teaching in the United States one of its noblest members. His work and influence survive.

Now, friend HENKLE, if you can select from the above reminiscences and statements any thing that can be added to the Committee's tribute to the memory of my good friend, you are at liberty to use it.

Most truly yours,
E. E. WHITE.

The Secretary adds the following:—The monument erected by the teachers and pupils of Atlanta, Ga., is a shaft of Italian marble having on the four sides of its base—

"BERNARD MALLON, born in Ireland, Sept. 14th, 1824; from Nov., 1848 to Aug., 1879, a citizen of Georgia; died in Texas, Oct. 21st, 1879."

On motion of JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio, the following amendment to the Constitution was adopted unanimously:—

That Art. 2 of the Constitution be so amended that after the words "Industrial Education" at the close of section 1, there be added, "and a National Council of Education."

E. E. WHITE from the Committee on Resolutions presented the following

REPORT.

Resolved. That the thanks of this Association are due and are hereby tendered,

1. To LEWIS MILLER, Esq., REV. DR. VINCENT, and A. K. WARREN, Esq., officers of the Chautauqua S. S. Assembly, for the free use of its buildings and grounds for this meeting.
2. To the railroad and steamboat companies which have extended to the delegates greatly reduced fare, and to the Chautauqua Transportation Company for a like favor.
3. To the hotels at this and other points on the Lake, for accommodations at reduced rates.
4. To the President, Secretary, Treasurer, and other officers of the Association for the very satisfactory arrangements made for this meeting, and the admirable manner in which these arrangements have been carried out.

The following resolutions which had been referred to the Committee, were reported back, but the minutes of the assistant Secretary fail to state whether they were adopted. It is presumed that they were.

Resolved, That this Association commends the practice of establishing chairs of Pedagogics in Universities and Colleges, under such arrangements as will put the study of the Science of Education on the same footing as other sciences, in the courses of study of these institutions.

Resolved, That the highest efficiency of our Public Schools depends on a wise supervision of them by State, County, or District, and local officers, possessing requisite professional qualifications for their special work.

Resolved, That this Association most heartily approves of the efforts made in Great Britain, and more recently in this country, to introduce into the schools needed instruction on the effects of alcohol upon the human system, and we welcome the appearance of manuals for the information of teachers, embodying the latest teachings of both science and experience on this important question.

On a call from reports from States, Hon. J. D. PICKETT made a spirited report for Kentucky. For want of time no more States were called for. A few closing remarks were made by Pres. J. ORMOND WILSON.

Adjourned.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 13, 1880.

The Department of Higher Instruction met in the Hall of Philosophy.

Lemuel Moss, of Bloomington, Indiana, presided.

I. W. Andrews, of Marietta, Ohio, Jonathan Fairbanks, of Springfield, Missouri, and J: F. Downey, of Pennsylvania State College, were appointed a Committee to nominate officers for the next year.

J. A. Robert, of Dayton, Ohio, was instructed to invite Professor Timayenis to meet with this Department to-morrow, and discuss the pronunciation of the Greek language.

Adjourned to meet in the same place, at 11 A. M., July 14th.

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Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 14, 1880.

Met pursuant to adjournment.

President E. T. Tappan, in the Chair.

About eighty members were present. The Committee on Nomination of Officers, reported as follows:

President :—Lemuel Moss, Bloomington, Indiana.

Vice President :—J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Iowa.

Secretary :—John S. Copp, Hillsdale, Michigan.

The report was adopted.

Professor Timayenis then proceeded to explain and illustrate the modern pronunciation of the Greek language.

In behalf of the department, President Tappan heartily thanked Professor Timayenis for his entertaining address.

Adjourned.

Third Day's Proceedings.

THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 15, 1880.

Met pursuant to adjournment.

J. L. PICKARD read the following paper on

SCHOLARSHIPS.

Self-reliance should be the aim in all educational processes. No matter what the attainments of a College graduate, if he enters activ life a dependent in any sense, he is in so far a weakling. The great question with Educators should be—How can we obtain the best material upon which to work, and then how can we make this material most effectiv for good: It is a wel-settld fact that the best material is found in those walks of life which demand the most rigid economy, and the highest degree of productiv industry. Simpl habits of living, made necessary in homes of poverty, ar favorable to mental activity. Welth seeks Education, that it may maintain a position alredy secured in society. Poverty desires to secure a place hitherto denied. The effort to maintain is les strenuous than that which seeks to obtain. Other things being equal, the poor makes a better use of educational privileges than the rich. He has more at stake and a higher motiv for exertion. Welth with an external finish conceals the lack of solid attainments. Poverty must rely more largely upon superior preparation for life's duties. In the race for distinction, the poor man has the advantage of better timber, of a higher motiv for labor, and of greater strength, the result of effort made to secure the desired object. He also labors under the disadvantage of necessarily remitted effort, since the necessities of life claim a portion of his time. The breaks he must make, often at the most inopportune time, ar discouraging. He misses the companionship of old friends, as they pas on, while he labors to secure the means for further study. It is not to be wonderd at that some become discouraged, and fall out by the way, while others ar dissuaded from undertaking a task which seems so difficult of accomplishment.

We ar thus brought face to face with a problem not so esy of solution. Our hope lies in the boys and girls whose circumstances ar not the most favorabl to the securing of means whereby they can obtain a good education, and then the benefits of self-reliance may be utterly lost, by injudicious help, to secure requisit means.

"Scholarships" hav been devised as a means whereby the best talent may be encouraged in pursuit of an education. To the system as practiced there ar some serious objections.

1. They ar in the *wrong hands*. They ar under the control of men who hav no opportunity of selecting from the mas the most promising youth, but who must make their selection from those who present themselvs as candidates for assistance. This clas of candidates may be of the very best material. The chances ar, however, that very many wil be found among them, whose only ambition is to secure an esier place than that assignd

them by fortune. The same amount of money controld by those who know more of of the nativ energy of the young man before he becomes an applicant for help—by those who ar seeking the material fit for moulding, and who wil giv just enough encouragement to secure on the part of the beneficiary the best effort of which he is capabl, wil do far more good than the alluring baits held out before young men who ar *watching* not *working* for better place. If the men who endow Scholarships would select their own beneficiaries, there would be a better use of the money givn in many instances.

2. They ar designated as helps to indigent students, so that the recipients ar at once set over by themselvs as a distinct clas. To a young man of spirit there is much that is repulsiv in such a classification. If by his own efforts he is securing an education, he is respected. Many a young man, desirous of social standing, attempts to conceal the fact that he is supported by trust funds, and unabl to conceal it, he would make it appear that he is not at all dependent upon them, and expends upon luxuries what he receivs for his necessities.

3. The considerations alredy adduced, lead naturally to this, that Scholarships as ordinarily administerd, do not secure the end sought. They do not bring out the talent which poverty keeps latent. They do bring forward those who wil ever be dependents. Most strenuous efforts hav been made in the direction of aid to professional students of one clas. No profession shows a larger proportion of impractical men. Freed from the cares of life during the period of preparation, they hav faild to receiv the training which acquaintance with practical affairs givs one who is compeld to meet and conquer difficulties as he erns his own living.

4. I hav spokn thus far of the effects of "Scholarships" upon their recipients. A singl consideration touching their effect upon the institutions conferring them, wil not be out of place. In this I take the widest range, and reach a large clas of the smaller colleges which hav resorted to "Scholarships" as a means of raising funds for their own use. Investing the principal in unproductiv property, they hav attempted to pay the interest from an empty purse. The obligation to furnish fre tuition on account of Scholarships alredy sunk in buildings, has proved a hevy burden. Evn if it be considerd a debt-bearing interest, the inducement to subscribe has been made so great that the rate of interest payabl in tuition is ruinously high. The College itself is weakend, and the caus of higher education suffers from the existence of weaklings born of Scholarships, and "living upon what they owe."

I need not be told that I hav been drawn away into the consideration of abuses of a good system, but when the liability to abuse is very great it is wel to look for a remedy. Reverting to the points made, the remedy is clear.

1. Let welthy men who desire to aid worthy students, select their own benificiaries.

2. Let the mark of indigence be taken from the recipients of Scholarships alredy establisht, by throwing them open to competition. There need be no fear that the most needy wil not take the larger share of the benefits, and

3. Not *poverty* but *pluck* wil win the coveted aid, and the recipient wil not be a dependent upon the bounty of another, but wil receiv the wages he has fairly ernd.

4. Let Scholarships no longer be made a means to secure funds upon which to make a show of living.

If the remedies suggested be properly applied, there wil be a complete change in the system. Scholarships as now known wil entirely disappear. Young men without means wil stil be encouraged to secure an education, but it wil be through judicious help, givn at proper times, and in the best way—the way of a loan without interest—by men who know the persons they ar aiding. Any young man who knows the source of his help, will make better use of the means furnisht him. If he feels that he is to repay what he is using, his expenditures wil be more carefully guarded. The security which one who loans money demands, wil be found, in this case, in the known character for probity and energy which the borrower possesses. Only such a character is worthy the aid. *Loans,* therefore, seem to me the safer and altogether the better form of assistance.

Let any young man feel that the money in his hands is *his own*, to be used at his pleasure, and many temptations to expenditure find a redy yielding. But let him know that it is only the *use* of the money which he can claim, and that the principal must be returnd in du time to the real owner, and his power of resistance to temptation is greatly strengthend.

A trifle added each year in the way of a Life-Insurance premium, wil make the payment of the loan more secure, in case of the deth of the recipient before his education becomes productiv capital.

There is a place for *Scholarships*. At the end of a Collegiate Course of Study, the peculiar aptitudes of the graduates wil appear. Devotion to some one line of study wil increase greatly the man's power, and help to this end wil be most wisely bestowed. The foundations for such Scholarships should designate some particular line of study, Philosophy, Mathematics, Natural or Physical Science, etc., or better yet, a more special department of each. The income from these Scholarships should be sufficient to giv the recipient a comfortabl support while pursuing his chosen studies. The selection of recipients will be a delicate task. As our country grows in welth, there wil be more leisure for practical studies. Institutions wil be establisht which hav for their curriculum only post-graduate studies. To such institutions may be left the selection, real merit being the only condition affixt.

The discussion was opened by John Hancock, of Dayton, Ohio, who thought it a waste of funds to help a student, merely because he is poor. The business of the college is to develop talent, and to the attainment of this end, he recommended that Scholarships be conferred upon the successful competitors in an examination, to be held at the beginning of the college course. He doubted the expediency of conferring Scholarships for post-graduate study.

Lemuel Moss, of Bloomington, Indiana, believed that the records of Educational Boards would show not more than ten per cent of failures among beneficiary students preparing for the ministry. No profession does more for liberal culture than does the ministry. While some schools of law and medicine number among their students less than three per cent of college graduates, few theological seminaries have less than seventy-five per cent. Educational bodies, and others having charge of important trusts, are very largely composed of ministers, and among these the percentage of failures has been very small. Assistance might wisely be extended to students who are not candidates for the ministry.

J. A. **Robert**, of Dayton, Ohio, said that in this country, as well as in Europe, students whose tuition was paid for them, could support themselves by their own labor, and that they were better men for their work and self-denial. Such discipline would develop a manly independence. The promotion of a sound Scholarship demands the establishment of fellowships for the prosecution of special post-graduate studies by young men who have displayed extraordinary proficiency during their college course.

Albert C. **Hale**, of New York, doubted whether the best talent should always be selected for Scholarships. The best scholar in the Freshman class does not always prove to be the best in the Senior: The pupil who is not the most brilliant, sometimes returns the best income for the investment made in assisting him. A short competitive examination is not always a fair test of ability.

C. R. **Abbott**. of Brooklyn, thought that students should be selected with reference to physical ability as well as mental. Sickly young men should not be permitted to share in the funds of educational boards.

I. W. **Andrews**, of Marietta, did not believe in cheap Scholarships or low tuition. The price of a permanent Scholarship ought to be so much that the interest upon it would pay the full tuition, and the disposition of such Scholarships might wisely be left in the hands of the College itself.

E. T. **Tappan**, of Kenyon College, Ohio, said that some young men of ability have been starved out of college. The changed condition of industries makes it more difficult for a student to support himself than it was a few years ago.

J. A. **Robert** admitted the truth of this, yet insisted that the estimates of college expenses are unnecessarily large. There is a growing disposition on the part of students to indulge in extravagant expenditures. Too much is spent on secret societies and class suppers.

L. S. **Thompson**, of Lafayette, Indiana, asked why nothing had been said of Scholarships for ladies.

President **Pickard** thought greater care should be taken to protect theological seminaries against unfit candidates. None should be admitted to College Scholarships but those whose character is above suspicion.

At the close of the discussion the following members of the Education Council were chosen from this section:—**James** McCosh, New Jersey, E. T. **Tappan**, Ohio, I. W. **Andrews**, Ohio.

Adjourned.

MARTIN R. ANDREWS, Secretary *pro tem.*

Fourth Day's Proceedings.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 16, 1880.

The Department met in the Amphitheatre.

Eli T. Tappan, President of the Department, delivered the following address

ON THE COMPLEXITY OF CAUSES.

In the history of human thought, the present age is distinguished by two things,—progress in the study of philosophy, and care for the education of youth. In the life of this nation, the most wonderful element consists in the variety and the extent of the schools of all kinds. The great increase of population—the widening of the national boundaries—the wars, foreign and civil—the abolition of slavery—none of these events compares in magnitude and importance with the growth of schools. This growth has not been caused by any war or revolution; it has not been the work of any sect or of any party; it has not been forced forward by protective legislation; the schools of this country have grown as a tree grows, thrusting limbs in every upward direction to the sky, with branches expanding wider in the light of every science, and with roots reaching into every home, and clinging about the hearts and hopes of every family.

In the progress that has taken place in the last fifty years in the schools of America and Great Britain, no change is greater than the increased attention paid to the study of philosophy. Not only does it occupy a larger part of the college course, but more attention is given to it by students who have graduated. There were in England and America profound writers on philosophy during the past century, but the number is greater in the present. The educated public regards this view of any topic as the most interesting; and writers on all other subjects, particularly physics and natural history, give to their investigations a metaphysical aspect. Writers on the methods and principles of the Science of Education, constantly make use of results derived from psychology and metaphysics. Therefore it seems not out of place, in the opening address before the Department of Higher Instruction, that I ask your attention to some truths which are involved in the notion of Cause and Effect. Teachers who are principally occupied with more advanced classes ought to be well acquainted with this subject.

Things *are* related to each other in the way of Cause and Effect. This is the one declaration upon the truth of which all philosophers, and all who are not philosophers, agree. Assuming the truth of this as admitted, let us consider what it involves, and some of its immediate consequences.

An event is anything which is now, and which was not. Everything which now exists, and which has not existed from eternity, once began to exist, and this beginning of existence was an event. Every beginning, every ending, every increase, every decrease, in a word every change is an event.

The idea of cause involves the principle that every event has a cause—the cause is that without which the event does not happen.

Every act of every body, every motion of the slightest particle of matter; every fancy of the poet, every thing that is now and was not before, had a cause, a something else than itself, without which it could not have happened.

The most obvious corollaries of this principle, are what are called the primary laws of motion. When a body is at rest it must remain so till something causes it to move; when in motion, its direction and its velocity must remain unchanged until some cause changes them.

Every beginning of motion, every change in the direction or in the rate of any motion is an event, which cannot occur without force, or cause.

When teachers recognize this simple inference, they will cease to substitute illustration for demonstration, and their pupils will know that these laws of inertia are infallible.

The rules of inductive logic constitute another set of corollaries derived from the notion of cause.

These truths have been expanded and clothed in exact language by BACON, HERSCHEL, and MILL; and are known as the Canons of Induction. It has been shown that all these laws of inductive reasoning depend on the principle of causation. Here, too, a better understanding of the laws would prevail if teachers distinctly recognized the general truth on which they stand.

My immediate object to-day, however, is to speak of the complexity of cause. Cause is always complex —effect is always complex.

Anything that is simple, not composed of parts or elements, cannot change of itself, since in itself there exists no cause for change. If a cause of change were in a thing, then the thing would be composed of more than one element; it would not be simple. To say that a simple thing changes of itself is to declare that there is an event without a cause. Anything simple and homogeneous cannot undergo change, except by means of some other thing; it cannot cease to be simple except by union with something different from itself; it cannot even move or change position, except relatively to some other thing.

Farther—if a thing which is elementary in its nature could produce an effect, independent of any other element, then it must do so when it begins to exist, but this beginning involves the existence of other elements of cause.

Hence, necessarily, every cause of an event consists of at least two elements. Of course I mean causes as they exist in nature. The elements of a cause may be distinguishable in thought, but they are inseparable in fact.

Also there is no such thing as a single effect, separate from other effects. An effect is a change, and change takes place only in two ways—either in the constituent elements of a complex thing, or in the relations of one thing to another. In both cases there are more than one element of change. Hence the notion of event implies plurality. It must be that effects in nature, like causes, are never simple.

One of the correlated truths has been very happily illustrated by Mr. HERBERT SPENCER, and the other by Mr. JOHN STUART MILL. Mr. SPENCER says: "When one body is struck against another, that which we usually regard as the effect, is a change in the position, or motion in one or both bodies. But a moment's thought shows us that this is a careless and very incomplete view of the matter. Beside the visible mechanical result, sound is produced; or, to speak accurately, a vibration in one or both bodies and in the surrounding air; and under some circumstances, we call this the effect."

He proceeds to show that there is also a condensation of matter, a spark, and a chemical combination. "Thus by the original mechanical force, expended in the collision, at least five, and often more, different kinds of changes have been produced."

Mr. MILL, than whom no higher authority can be quoted on this point, says: "The cause, philosphically speaking, is the sum total of the conditions, positive and negative, taken together; the whole of the contingencies of every description, which being realized, the consequent invariably follows." In illustration Mr. MILL takes this example:—A stone thrown into the water, falls to the bottom. Here, then, must be a stone, and water; the stone must be thrown into the water; there must be an earth, and the stone must be within the sphere of the earth's attraction; and lastly, the specific gravity of the stone must be greater than the water.

Mr. SPENCER is certainly correct as to the multifold character of all effects, and Mr. MILL is equally correct as to the multifold character of all causes, as each so well illustrates. Take the truth stated by Mr. MILL and add to it that stated by Mr. SPENCER, and we have the whole truth. There is no instance in all things observed by the human intellect, of a single cause, or of a single effect. Mr. SPENCER says truly that effect is always complex; it is also true that cause is also complex, that is, there is more than one element in every cause.

This complexity is why the natural sciences do not afford absolutely certain conclusions,—not because of any uncertainty of the laws based upon the truth of causality,—but because no man can know that he has perceived the whole of any cause, or the whole of any effect.

There is one other principle to which I wish to call the especial attention of teachers. It is this: there is the same amount of complexity, that is, the same number of distinct elements in any effect as in its cause, neither more nor less. The number of elements in the cause must be as great as in the effect, for any change in the effect is itself an event, it is a change, a something different, it must have its cause; and its cause must be something else than what brought about the rest of the effect. It must be an additional element in the total cause of the event.

In the illustration given by Mr. SPENCER, if there were any change in the motion of either body, the sound produced, its duration, its tone, or the heat evolved by the collision, such change in any of these elements in the effect must be due to some change in a corresponding element in the cause. Complication in a result necessarily implies as great complication in the cause; if there is variety in one, there must be equal variety in the other.

This conclusion appears so simple, so inevitable, that some may think it a waste of time to state it. But one of the greatest systems of philosophy of our time is built upon the denial of this truth.

In Mr. SPENCER's Essay on "Progress, its Laws and Cause," that learned philosopher gives "the statement of the law, which is this;—every active force produces more than one change—every cause produces more than one effect." In the "First Principles," a work published much later than the one just quoted, Mr. SPENCER devotes the XXth Chapter to maintain that "Universally, the effect is more complex than the cause." Mr. SPENCER appears to make this law the corner stone of his theory of development. Let no one suppose that I am discussing the question whether there is development, evolution, or growth. That is a question of fact, to be determined by observation. It belongs to the students of the various things which are said to grow or develop. But the question now is about the nature of cause, and whether the thing developed can be more complex than the cause which produced it.

Development is defined as growth, a gradual change, as from the egg to maturity in animals, or from the seed to the full-grown plant. This definition is enough to show that every development being a change, is an event which must have some cause. This event takes place wherever anything grows greater, or stronger, or better, or more intelligent, or more useful, or more complicated, or in any way makes any progress. Development implies progress. This progress consists always in an added attribute or power; when a thing is developed it has some power, some quality which it had not before. A change whereby some power is lost, is the reverse of development. When such a change continues, it becomes destruction and death.

Development requires that the thing developed had parts, that it was composed of two or more elements. A simple substance such as a chemical element, cannot, with propriety, be said to develop. It may unite with other substances. The result may show properties that neither of the elements possessed when separate, but it is not a development of either of those elements. Any thing that is complex even slightly, may become more complex, and this may be evolution, or development, or progress. Any thing that is composed of several elements may have the number increased, and in this manner be developed. Such a change cannot be caused by the thing itself.

In many instances there can be no doubt about the matter. An egg does not develop itself into a bird, without some outside causes. A seed does not develop itself into a tree. Warmth, moisture, and other things, must cause the evolution and progress. A boy does not develop himself into a man; neither his body nor his mind can grow withou food. Society, Commerce, Literature, Art, these things do not develop themselves; they are the work of man. This round Earth wa developed; it grew out of a nebulous mass of something which was no yet Earth. Every Scientific man who expounds this doctrine points ou the cause which effected this development, consisting in great part o forces entirely distinct from the nebulous mass itself. In no case has there been found any *individual* thing which developed itself unaided by extrinsic cause. Such a thing is as impossible as it is to increase force by additional machinery.

It might be argued from analogy that the same is true in regard to the development of a class or species. This mode of reasoning ought to have the greater weight, since a principle argument to show that species *are* developed, is from analogy of individuals. Individuals of the highest races of animals may be traced in development, step by step, from the ovarian germ to the most complex forms of mature life—each step corresponding to some inferior species in organization. So it is said, and we need not question the statement. By analogy, it is inferred that the entire species has been developed, as the individual has. This may have been, I do not question it. If so, did the species cause itself to develop? The analogy would lead us to decide that it could not—that something outside of the species itself must have caused it to develop.

A reason can be given however, stronger than any comparison or analogy—a complex effect has a complex cause, and the complexity of the cause must necessarily be the same as the complexity of the effect. It is, therefore, impossible for any individual being, or any class of beings, to cause itself to increase in complexity, to gain any power or attribute, or, in other words to develop itself. In one being, or in a class of beings, there may be progress, from that which is more simple to that which is more complex; they may gain new powers, new faculties. Individuals and races may appear with higher and better organizations, but if one species was developed into another, the change was brought about by some greater power, a cause adequate to so great an effect. If every cause produces more than one effect, it would follow that everything might develop itself; the causes which exist in a thing might produce effects in greater number; and these again as causes might produce effects in still greater number; and so on toward the infinite complexity of the universe. All this might take place without the operation of any outside cause; in a word, a thing might make itself grow.

If every event has a cause, and if consequently every complex thing must have just as complex a cause, if causes must be adequate, then it is absurd to maintain, that anything can grow by force alone of the causes which exist within itself.

To puncture such a fallacy is the duty of those who teach rigorous logic, and sound philosophy.

W. T. Harris, of Missouri, read the following paper on

EQUIVALENTS IN A LIBERAL COURSE OF STUDY.

FORMAL AND SUBSTANTIAL STUDIES.

The course of study laid out for schools and colleges has two functions to perform. It must furnish the best range of studies for disciplin—or the subjectiv training of the powers of the mind, and it must present the objectiv world of nature and humanity in outlines complete enough to giv to the youth a general survey of his relations to both aspects of the world.

If a course of study could be devised which should provide only for the so-cald "gymnastic" training of the intellect and wil—neglecting all concrete relations to the world—the students traind on such a course would be far from "educated" in any proper sense of the term. There would be some degree of strength but no skil in using it.

Gymnastics pure and simple may develop strength and agility, but the best of gymnasts may be unskilful at any and all trades or useful employments. His strength and skil hav been developt so as to giv him beauty of form, thoro command of his muscles in adjusting the posture of his body and its carriage in standing, walking, running, and leaping—or in throwing, lifting, pulling, and rowing. But his usefulnes as a laborer would not be at all commensurate with his formal strength and agility.

He would perhaps find himself most useful in the menial employments of porter at a hotel, message boy, oarsman, hostler, or something of the kind.

His development is *formal* but not *substantial;* it relates to himself considered abstractly as animal-locomotion or as vegetable-nutrition.

ARISTOTLE calls the function of nutrition the vegetabl soul, and the function of locomotion and feeling he ascribes to the "animal soul." So if we look at a man's body in these abstract fases of digestion and proper exercise and symmetry of form we omit all consideration of his relation to this world of productiv industry—of his emancipation from bodily wants of food, clothing and shelter, by means of the division of labor.

His gymnastic training is a matter that has no reference to his degree of civilization—such training would be found alike among the wild Indians of America, the savages of Africa or the "Isles of the Sea," the Spartan youth, the French Zouaves, the students of Oxford and Cambridge, or of Harvard and Yale.

It would render its possessor somewhat more redy in the acquirement of special skil in the trades, but without the usual apprenticeship our gymnast would not be abl to handl the plane, ax, saw, or file of the mechanic, or the farmer's scythe, ho, or pitchfork. He would hav no concrete relation to labor and industry.

So, too, a course of study which involvd only subjectiv disciplin would not fit one for insight into the world of man or the world of nature. The game of ches would furnish a good course of study for the disciplin of the powers of attention and calculation or abstract combination. But it would contribute littl to the knowledge of man or of nature.

Again, the fact that a disciplin is a formal one does not indicate that it is a general one. The disciplin of ches-playing does not develop the power of attention to organic nature—the sciences of botany, fysiology, geology, or meteorology. Nor does it develop the power of comprehending the laws of space and time; while the study of geometry on the other hand furnishes a *general* disciplin as wel as a *formal* one, in the recognition of spatial laws and relations, and finds application in every possibl direction in the study of nature.

The interest and self-activity of the pupil may be excited by and upon the merest formal studies, and yet his culture in combination with his fellow-men be utterly neglected. But man's superiority to the animals consists essentially in his ability to combine with his fellows in such a manner as to reap the results of their labor and experience.

By the division of labor each man is abl to devote himself to a special vocation, and thereby acquire great skil of production. He shares in the labor, in the productions of the labor of the rest of the world; his tea and coffe come to him from around the world, his clothing, his food, his shelter,—all but the infinitesimal item which is the product of his own labor, ar furnisht by others. He contributes his mite to the market of the world, and receivs thence the varied supplies needed for his wants as a civilized being.

Thus civil society enabls each man to fare as wel as if he wer an entire community insted of a puny individual.

Besides this combination for productiv industry, man has a relm of Spiritual combination that is far more essential than that by which he procures food, clothing, and shelter. Indeed it would seem as if it wer the beneficent design of Providence to secure spiritual intercommunication under the guise of peaceful commerce—and evn under that of hostil collisions in war. For no peopl ever comes into contact with another peopl without lerning some fase of human life essential to its knowledge of itself.

Man's wants of food, clothing and shelter, impel him to commerce. But in commerce he interchanges not only material commodities, but also arts and letters—the condenst products of spiritual experience.

It takes all mankind to reveal human nature in its completeness. If man would know himself, he must study this revelation of his own nature, not simply in his own individual biografy, but at large in humanity. A hermit could never discover moral laws, becaus moral laws concern the relations of the individual to the social whole. Stil les could he ever discover the laws of the State or Nation. And yet these moral laws and the statutes of the Nation ar the nature of the human wil formulated and reveald.

The hermit in his isolation could never separate within himself what is transient and variabl in his wil-power from what is essential and substantial. Thus a man finds his greatest blessing in man; the particular individual, in the social whole.

As it is in matters of the wil which become realized only in great institutions like the State or civil society—the State being a sort of "Grand Man"—so it is in matters of the intellect. Each man reveals his own nature to others, and therefore lerns in turn his nature by the contemplation of the deeds of others.

Each acts his part for others, and is in turn spectator of the world drama whose theme and plot is his own nature. Each man would hav to liv a myriad of lives to exhaust life and know it through his own experience —but in one short lifetime he sees the spectacl of a world of lives, and thus comes to know himself through participation in the lives of others.

Shakespeare, the greatest of world-poets, has stated this fact in that wonderful drama, "Troilus and Cressida," where he explains the nature of human institutions. He says:

> "Man how dearly ever parted [endowed with faculties]
> How much in having, or without or in,
> Cannot make boast to hav that which he hath,
> Nor feels not what he owns, but by reflection
> [i. e. in the mirror of society].
> As when his virtues shining upon others
> Heat them and they retort that heat again,
> To the first giver."
>
> "No man is lord of anything
> Tho in and of him there be much consisting,
> Til he communicate his part to others;
> Nor doth he. of himself, know them for aught
> Til he behold them formd in the applaus
> Where they're extended; which like an arch reverberates
> The voice again; or like the gate of steel
> Fronting the sun, receivs and renders back
> His figure and his heat."

The life of each man, his succes, and more notably his failures, ar a contribution to all the world; his path through the wildernes does not hav to be explord again by others. The mistakes and sufferings of the individual ar vicarious and others ar saved by them from the like.

To the school belongs in part this revealing of man to himself. Only in part does the school perform this, becaus family nurture has the function of initiating the child into these lessons, in the epoch before the school; so too there is an education of like import in the vocation in life, and in the function of citizenship in the State; the Church is *par excellence* charged with this office, and givs its education throughout all ages of life.

So great is the task of the school; and its two provinces—the wil and the intellect—lead into provinces so crowded with details that there is perpetual danger of dissipation of energies. Some mere formal activity may be resorted to, having only a narrow subjectiv influence on the pupil, and the objectiv substantial side of education be neglected.

He may be educated in the gymnastics of the wil and intellect insted of being fed and nourisht by the spiritual food which is found only in this great revelation of man and realized in institutions and in the history of civilization.

Some narrow province may be selected as the object of study, and the pupil led away from the essential principl of education into the pursuit of trifling details.

To avoid these dangers it is necessary for the educator to consider carefully the relation of each branch of study on the program to its scope and contents, and secure a proper representation of all the substantial fases of human life in and by means of these studies.

ELECTIV STUDIES IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

In order to discus intelligently the question of equivalents in a liberal course of study, it is necessary to determin which studies ar formal and which substantial.

We must survey the province of knowledge so far as it represents the growth and development of humanity and its instrumentalities of preservation.

There meets us at first the twofold division of topics of instruction: I. Nature; II. Spirit; Nature signifying the world of unconscious being, and Spirit the world of conscious being. The science of nature redily divides again into two aspects: that of inorganic nature and organic.

I. Inorganic nature: there is the science of mathematics which treats of the laws of time and space—or the general form of all nature in so far as it is quantitativ. Secondly, there is fysics, including both molar and molecular, or "natural. filosofy" and chemistry; this science treats of matter in its quantitativ aspect also. Inorganic nature is studied by enumeration and measurement.

II. Organic nature: Relating to this there is natural history and all other sciences that hav for their object a movement or process that is of the character of a cycle or return into itself. Not only the science of the plant and animal, but astronomy, meteorology, geology, geografy.

The sciences relating to man as a spiritual being ar to be classified under thre heads: (a) theoretical, or relating to the intellect; (b) practical, or relating to the wil; (c) aesthetical, or relating to the imagination or emotional nature.

The thre divisions of studies relating to man as a spiritual being include, under the first or theoretical aspect, Language Studies or Filology: the science of the instrument invented for the reception, preservation and communication of thought. Beside this, logic, rhetoric, mental filosofy and psychology.

Under the second aspect, that of the wil or practical mind, belong Civil History, which portrays man's progress in realizing forms of fredom by means of political organization; Social Science, which investigates the evolution of the institutions of society—the family, civil society with its subordinate fases of division of labor, education, eleemosynary systems, etc.

Thirdly, under the æsthetical and emotional division of mind we hav the fine arts, and especially literature. It is the province of literature to present in its various forms the manifold collisions that arise between man's real and ideal natures and their reconciliation, and thus to reveal the human heart as it is and also to show it as it ought to be when its ideal is realized.

These five provinces—the two aspects of nature and the thre aspects of spiritual man—ar five substantial provinces of human lerning which should be represented in the course of study at every stage of progress, from the primary school up to the college.

Sometimes it wil happen that two provinces ar embraced in one branch of study in the school; as for exampl, in the first year of the primary school, the branch of reading includes the theoretical department under the fase of language lessons, and also the aesthetical under the fase of literary character, which to some extent evn the erliest reding lessons should hav.

But a course of study would be radically defectiv which neglected entirely any one of these five departments. In fact, the instinct of educators rather than their deliberate judgment has prevaild in securing a wel-rounded course of study in most classes of schools.

In primary education the five provinces ar represented by (a) arithmetic (inorganic nature); (b) geografy (which introduces the pupil to the organic fases of nature); (c) grammar (which covers up under a thin wrappage the logical laws of thinking); (d) history (presenting human wil acting on a large scale and securing fredom to the individual); (e) literature (in the reading books, containing the gems of intense expression and statement found in the language.)

In secondary education these five departments ar continued, usually with the following representativ studies:

(a) Higher mathematics and fysics; (b) fysical geography, or some one of its topics — as geology, botany, or fysiology; (c) languages ancient and modern, and mental filosofy; (d) universal history and civil government; (e) literature and its history, and English composition.

It is redily seen that any one topic belonging to any one of the five departments, is in some sense representativ of all the others. Any branch of mathematics, for exampl, is like all the others in treating of quantity and in dealing with exact demonstrations; it is moreover allied to any branch of fysics—or to any branch relating to inorganic nature, becaus the quantitativ aspects of inorganic nature ar the most prominent ones—the measurement of size, weight, density, rapidity of motion, etc., being mathematical processes.

So too, under the hed of organic nature, any branch, say of botany, treats of a process in nature which moves in a cycle—a cycle of time, in this case; there is the seed, then the sapling, then the tre, then the seed again. So botany resembls zoölogy or fysiology in the fact that it treats of living bodies. It also resembls evn meteorology or astronomy in the fact that all its processes form cycles. In studying any one topic—say botany—therefore, all other topics of organic nature ar represented.

In the selection of topics for the course of study it is comparativly a great neglect to omit all representation of a whole department, while it is a comparativly small one to omit one or more topics under a department alredy represented by some topic. If a pupil studies grammar, he lerns the habit of mind which would enabl him to seiz and observ the facts of the science of mental filosofy.

Each branch properly studied is a disciplin to the mind in the direction of the perception and comprehension of all the other topics which ar kindred to it.

To lern arithmetic is to giv the mind some power to view the world quantitativly. Evn counting is an immense acquisition to the child or savage, and differentiates him by a wide gap of culture from the child or savage who cannot count.

There has been a widespred demand for change in the course of study in schools and colleges in order "to make the studies more practical." To meet this demand many colleges and high schools hav "electiv" studies. The pupil may select one branch of natural science in place of another, or one modern language in place of another. As long as these electivs ar so arranged that the symmetry of the course of study is preservd, and each department represented in a proper manner, there is no great injury done to the pupil. But if a branch of study relating to inorganic nature is substituted for one relating to organic nature, or stil more for one relating to man, much harm may result.

Moreover, among the studies relating to theoretical man, the importance of ancient languages must not be ignored. The modern utilitarian spirit has done more to injure the symmetry of the course of study in this respect than in any other. Latin and Greek ar supposed by it to be of no practical valu—to hav no influence upon the pupil in the way of giving him insight into the world in which he livs.

Inasmuch as the spirit of utilitarian protest has concentrated its attack upon the study of the ancient languages, objecting to Latin and Greek as "ded languages," entirely unfit for practical ends, and setting up its demand for some modern language in their sted, it becomes us to inquire narrowly into the exact relation of the study of Latin and Greek to a liberal education in our own time.

Why wil not some modern language answer as wel for the purposes of disciplin and information as Latin or Greek?

In answering this question we must remember that the evolution of the civilization in which we liv and move and hav our being issued through Greece and Rome, on its way to us. We kindld the torches of our institutions, the watch-fires of our civilization, at their sacred flames. The organism of the State, the invention of the forms in which man may liv in a civil community and enjoy municipal and personal rights,—these trace their descent in a direct line from Rome, and wer indigenous to the peopl who spoke Latin.

In our civil and political forms we liv Roman life to-day. That side or fase of the complex organism of modern civilization is Roman. Our scientific and æsthetical forms come from beyond Rome; they speak the language of their Greek home to this very day, just as much as jurisprudence and legislation pronounce their edicts in Roman words.

To assimilate this antecedent stage of existence, it is not sufficient to form an acquaintance with it by reading its history or literature in translations, altho that occupation is of great valu. The most rapid and complete assimilation of it is to be attaind by the immediate contact with it in lerning the languages of these ancient peopls. In lerning to think in their idioms, and to giv our thoughts their forms and words, we lern to see how the world lookt to them, and can redily seiz and appreciate the exigencies which gave rise to their forms and usages, for language is the clothing of the inmost spiritual self of a peopl.

We must, therefor, don the garb in which they thought and spoke, in order fully to realize in ourselvs these embryonic stages of civilization. We know truly only what we hav livd through. We must liv it in our dispositions or feelings, then realize the forms which it takes on in the fantasy, that is to say, in its art forms, and finally we must seiz its principls abstractly by the understanding and concretely by the reason. The erlier stages of growth—those of feeling and fantasy—can be reacht best through the natural symbolism of the *word*. Each national spirit reveals itself through language.

Translation loses, in a large measure, this peculiar element of feeling and fantasy, altho it retains the higher, abstract elements.

But for the purposes of explanation of our own life, it is essential for us to reproduce within ourselvs, as nearly as possibl, precisely those immediate peculiar elements of feeling and fantasy which constitute the germinal cell-growth of Roman and Greek character.

From the modern scientific idea of method, evn that cald Darwinism, we see the absolute necessity of mastering our history, in order to know ourselvs. Just as the uncultivated person feels and knows his narrow circl of sensations, desires, appetites, and volitions as his personal existence, his "*ego*" or "self," so the man of culture recognizes his identity with the vast complex of civilization, with the long travail of human history.

He looks at himself through the eyes of mankind, and sees himself in mankind. History is the revelation of what is potentially in each man.

If we now inquire what the substitution of a modern language—say German or French—for Latin and Greek would effect in the education of our youth, we must first consider the fact that a modern language stands to English in the relation of co-ordination, and not in that of pre-supposition.

English does not presuppose another modern language, as an erlier stage through which it has past. As immediate facts, German and French stand in need of explanation through evolution, just as much as English does. Their civilizations ar not embryonic stages of the English civilization, but rather repetitions of it. No one modern language is an embryonic type of another, nor does it present in its literature the embryonic form of the civilization of another people, evn tho it may be an "arrested development" of its own type of civilization.

Evn the most materialistic science of our time hastens to caution us that we should never seek to know the individual by isolating him from his conditions. To know an individual scientifically, we must study it in its history. It is a part of a proces. Its presuppositions ar needed to make it intelligibl. Only in the perspectiv of its history can we see it so as to comprehend it as a whole.

All modern Europeans, for the reason that they hav derived their culture from Greece and Rome, must find their special culture-studies in Latin and Greek.

The embryology of modern civilization is to be found in the literature and institutions of those wonderful peopls.

The question of the course of study—involving as it does the selection of such branches as shal in the most effectiv manner develop the substantial activity as wel as the formal activity of the child, is the most important question which the educator has before him; more important than that other question of the method of instruction, which justly claims so much attention.

The practice of offering to the pupil a choice between two or more courses of study,—so-cald "practical" and "classical" courses,—is an occasion for the spred of error in regard to the function of the branches of lerning.

It is not to be expected that the immature mind of youth can choose wisely in this most difficult of educational matters. Here, if anywhere, he must be guided by the wisdom of his instructors, who know the wants of the pupil and the best mode of supplying them.

Adjourned.

NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, JULY 13, 1880.

The Department was called to order at 12 M., by the President, J. C. GILCHRIST, of Cedar Falls, Iowa, who made a few remarks.

G. P. BEARD of Pennsylvania, moved, that morning sessions of one hour each be held in the Chapel. Adopted. G. W. FETTER, of Philadelphia moved, that a Committee of three be appointed to prepare business for said meetings. Adopted. The chair appointed T. C. H. VANCE, of Kentucky, LOUIS SOLDAN, of Missouri, and GEO. P. BEARD of Pennsylvania.

On motion it was resolved that a Committee of three be appointed, to report the names of suitable persons to fill the offices of this Department for the ensuing year.

The Paper on "Object Lessons in Morals," by Rev. A. D. MAYO, of Springfield, Mass., read before the National Educational Association, at its morning session, was then discussed by LOUIS SOLDAN, of Missouri, F. E. WILSON, of Ohio, and G: P. BEARD, of Pennsylvania.

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Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 14, 1880.

The President called the Department to order in the Chapel, at 12 M.

The Business Committee reported, that the discussion of the papers read before the National Educational Association should be the business of the morning sessions.

The paper read by W: H. PAYNE, on "The Domain of Nature and Art in the Process of Education," was then discussed by JEROME ALLEN, of New York, GEO. P. BROWN, of Indiana, W. N. HAILMANN, of Michigan, GEO. P. BEARD, of Pennsylvania, and F. W. PARKER, of Massachusetts.

The following named persons were elected officers for the ensuing year, in accordance with the recommendation of the nominating Committee:

President, JEROME ALLEN, of Geneseo, New York; Vice-President, G. L. OSBORNE, of Warrensburg, Missouri; Secretary, GEO. P. BROWN, Terre Haute, Indiana.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The President called the Department to order at 2 P. M., in the Amphitheatre, and after a statement, that the absence of persons who had promised to read papers necessitated a change of program, made the following

ADDRESS.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Department of Normal Schools, and coworkers in all other Departments:

Standing in the presence of the National Educational Association, I realize, in the fullest manner, the truth of one of the sayings of ST. PAUL, that the body is one, and hath many members, and all the members of that one body, being many ar one; that, since this body is not one member but many, there ar diversities of gifts and differences of administration. The manifest conscious union between all the branches of this National Association is a beautiful and gratifying exhibition. Here, the eye does not say to the hand, 'I hav no need of thee:' nor, again, the hed to the feet, 'I hav no need of thee.' Here, there is no schism,—but the members hav the same care, one for the other. The several departments of this Association, the great bredth of domain belonging to each, the inexhaustibl welth and fertility, and, at the same time, the extensiv and complicated explorations necessary to gain full and complete possession of such domain, force upon the mind a deep conviction of the grandeur of our caus, and excite in all hearts a deep devotion to it. That such devotion exists, this meeting and the daily discussions within this amphitheatre fully attest.

The Department of Normal Schools presents itself before you, this afternoon, as the representativ of a special work, in which all other departments ar deeply interested. In this one department there is assigned, by common consent, two duties,—the preparation of teachers, the development of a Didactic Science, or a body of educational doctrin. Both ar duties of extraordinary difficulty. I do not mean that, in an organic or corporate form, wil the members of this department accomplish the second thing named:—a Didactic Science. I do not say that. This, necessarily, is a matter of growth. It may happen that it wil be the direct gift to the world, of some genius that may arise, who wil stretch out his wand over the confused mas of disjointed elements, now floating on the sea of thought, and order them into a harmonious system. In the execution of these duties resting upon this Department, I know that the co-operation of all others is, and wil be, redily givn. The Science of Didactics necessarily involvs a knowledge of all other sciences. It must await their approach to perfection. In this later day, we observ the activity of the human intellect in this direction In the very nature of things, the evolution of education must take place when man reaches a relativ advanced position in civilization. History shows the grades of ascension by which nations rise from barbarism to enlightenment. First, there is mastery over matter, and the acquisition of resources with which to gratify our fysical wants. And this is also tru of individuals. There must be the era of fysical force, of which war is the great exponent, becaus war gave dominion and welth. Then, there comes the intellectual era, resting on this fysical security,—the silver and goldn ages of the literature of Greece and Rome, the intellectual revival of the fifteenth century, and the scientific discoveries of the nineteenth. So, now, the conditions ar secured, from which we may expect the germination and growth of the most subtl, profound and intricate of all sciences—the science of education. And, this reasonabl expectation is being fulfilld. At no time in modern history, is there such agitation over educational issues, by all progressiv nations, as at the present. At no time in the past, hav so many leading minds enterd this field. It would seem that there is some inspiration, pervading the intellectual world, disposing it to take up, with great energy, the solution of the educational problem, and reduce that solution to a tru formula. It is this inspiration that is establishing chairs of Didactics in the universities of Europe and America. All departments alike, ar waiting the completion of this great enterprise in filosofy,—the development of a tru science of Pedagogy. The Normal-School men ar ernest in heart, and untiring in their industry. They feel that the necessities of the times ar their opportunity—that the day of triumf is at hand,—that education wil arise in all its strength and beauty, and lead the race into greater perfection and happiness. They ar cheerd by the response, coming from the laborers in the other departments; and, I know, the sentiment of every tru normal-school man is no les devoted to Primary, Secondary, and Higher Education than to his own department. Indeed, he is the servant of these,—he livs for their advancement.

G. L. Osborne, of the State Normal School at Warrensburg, Missouri, then read the following paper, entitled

INSTRUCTION IN SUBJECT-MATTER, A LEGITIMATE PART OF NORMAL SCHOOL WORK.

Says Blackstone, "The true and natural foundations of society are the wants and fears of men ". If this be true, every legitimate institution of society, whether religious or civil, has a lawful reason for its existence, and this reason may always be found in the want to be supplied—the end to be attained. A proper conception of the end enables us not only to determine the true province of the institution in question, but to give right direction to the means used for the promotion of that end.

It is now a recognized truth that universal education improves the condition of society and adds to the stability and purity of government. Acting upon this acknowledged principle, all the leading civilized nations have taken some steps toward educating the masses. But wherever this has been attempted, the incompetency of teachers has been a serious barrier to progress, and its fruits have been untold loss of both time and means. As the outgrowth of efforts to provide a remedy for this evil, we have the teachers' seminaries of Germany, Russia, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark; the training schools of Austria and the Netherlands; the preparatory schools of Hungary; the training colleges of Great Britain; and the normal schools of France, Spain, Italy, and the United States.

While these schools have a common origin in the demand for skilled teaching, and their general purpose is the same—the education and training of teachers—each nation forms its own conception of the qualifications essential to the teacher, and this in turn determines the kind, extent, and quality, of the culture to be given by the respective schools.

Our ideas of government and of the general good of society, determine what is desirable in culture, and this again determines the qualifications of the teacher. It would seem, therefore, that the actual qualifications of the teacher under different forms of government, and even under different circumstances in the same government, may properly vary; and there exists no arbitrary standard of qualification that can be considered universal. Qualifications that thoroughly meet the wants of one city both in kind and extent, may be inadequate to the wants of another, the practical life of the people being an important factor in determining the question. The tastes and needs of an agricultural community may widely and properly differ from those of a community in which the chief pursuit is manufacturing, merchandising, or mining. The training given at the city normal school may be all that is desired for the city in which it is located, and still be very poorly adapted to the wants of a neighboring city; or of the State at large.

A careful consideration of these practical phases, in connection with the nature of mind, leads me to conclude that the qualifications of the teacher consist of different elements, some of which are constant and others variable; and, that the school for the training of teachers, while giving close attention to the constant elements, must, at the same time, conform its work to the needs of the community for whose benefit it exists. Other theories may seem plausible, but this is the practical test which must finally determine the fate of normal schools in this country. I submit as a fact in the history of normal training, that in those communities and countries in which this principle has been ignored, normal schools as such have accomplished least; and that where it has been fully recognized and intelligently applied, they have obtained the firmest footing.

A comprehensive analysis of the essential qualifications of the teacher reveals,

I. Certain natural qualities of head and heart which serve as the basis of culture, and by virtue of which, success in teaching is rendered possible; and,

II. Certain acquirements which are the result of education and training.

The education of the teacher is susceptible of division into (1) GENERAL and (2) PROFESSIONAL. The general education falls within the province of the literary institution; and its purpose is to qualify its possessor for intelligent citizenship, and to bring him up to the point at which the study of a special calling properly begins. Hence, theoretically at least, it underlies all legitimate occupations, trades, and professions.

The professional education of the teacher legitimately belongs to the normal school. It includes all of that training which is sought in view of the special work of teaching as distinguished from other professions, and comprehends three distinctly-marked lines of culture:

1st, A special training in those branches of science which he expects to teach, together with such other subjects as have a direct bearing upon them, and a knowledge of which would increase his professional skill;

2nd, A careful study of those subjects which underlie the Science of Education, and a like study of the science itself; and,

3rd, A study of the Art of Teaching in its relations to the science of education, followed by actual training in the school of practice.

I conceive this to be a fair general statement of what is included in the professional training of a teacher. Instruction in subject-matter constitutes the major part. Omit this, and there remains little else than a few weeks' drill in the school of practice. Such a course would ignore the very existence of a science of education, strike teaching from the roll of professions, and degrade it to mere empiricism. As teachers, we are scarcely prepared to assume such a position.

Then, there *are* some subjects that may be properly taught in a normal school. Were we to ask our critics to name these subjects, the answer would doubtless be, "School Management, principles and methods of teaching and kindred topics". But how shall even these be taught without "instruction in subject-matter?" Is the normal student expected to gain his knowledge by absorption? The normal schools have discovered no royal road to learning. What the student gets here must come through diligent study and skilful instruction. In short, he must be instructed in the "subject-matter" of these branches, and this places us at once upon the forbidden ground of academic training. But here our critics hasten to explain that the difficulty lies not so much in giving instruction in the subject-matter of the branches named, as in stepping beyond the proper limit, and teaching other branches. This seems to me to be a different question. But let us inquire who fixed this limit. If such a thing exists at all, it is not an arbitrary limit, but must exist in the very nature of things. If the normal school may properly give instruction in some subjects of vital importance to the teacher, why not in others of equal importance? If in school management and methods of teaching, why not in arithmetic, algebra, English grammar, and, in fact all the branches that constitute a qualification for teaching? What pleasure does it afford a parent whose children have been taught heresies in science, to know that the teaching was done strictly in accordance with the laws of pedagogics? In this case the consolation is somewhat akin to that experienced by the man who awakes from anæsthetic sleep, to find that his strong right arm has been amputated without good cause, and is assured that the surgeon who performed the operation was remarkable for his skill in the use of the knife. The truth is, a thorough knowledge of the branches taught in the schools, is as much a professional qualification as skill in the methods of teaching. In the active work of the teacher, his knowledge of both is constantly put to the test; and the normal school that does not in this broad sense seek the professional qualification of its students, is recreant to a sacred trust.

It is claimed that academic training properly belongs to the literary institution, and that the normal school in assuming to instruct in language, mathematics, or natural science, is for that reason venturing beyond its proper sphere. True, our academies, seminaries, and colleges address themselves largely to this kind of work, but it does not necessarily follow that they do it by exclusive right. This fact alone, does not make it their special prerogative. If any principle in education is well established in this country, it is that the professional school, whatever its kind, may legitimately teach those branches which underlie, and immediately affect, the successful practice of that profession. This is true of the military school, the naval academy, the law school, and the medical college; and why not of the normal school, also? The military school in addition to a thorough drill in all that pertains to the management of troops, both in the garrison and in the field, imparts actual instruction in those branches of science which are essential to the successful practice of the profession of arms. The naval academy is conducted on the same principle. The law school prescribes a course in letters as essential to the intelligent practice of law. The medical college, although possibly less exacting, makes similar claims; and there is no good reason why the normal school should constitute an exception to this rule. Its claims are surely as pointed as in any of the cases above cited.

It is urged, further, that " academic instruction in a normal school is needless repetition."

This is a question of expediency in which each case should be decided on its merits; and until our literary institutions thoroughly occupy the field, furnishing the kind and degree of training needed, it cannot be used as an argument against the right of the normal school to give "instruction in subject-matter." Indeed, it seems to me, that under any circumstances, the normal school would clearly have the right to give such instruction as would harmonize the academic with the didactic training, thus giving unity to the professional culture.

Again, it is claimed that this work would be better done in the literary institution.

This point is not established. It is natural for those preparing for any given work, both to desire and seek the best training attainable for the purpose. If this claim were well founded, the demand for academic training in the normal school would gradually diminish, and, finally, cease, the supposed evil correcting itself by force of circumstances. But, on the contrary, the demand seems quite as urgent now as in the beginning. My experience has been that those who have received the greater part of their academic training in other schools, usually rank among the most unsatisfactory of our graduates. The exceptions are rare. The training is apt to be unsymmetrical. In one case we find that the student has been rushed forward in Latin and the higher mathematics, while English and the natural sciences have been slighted. In another, the attention has been directed to advanced study, and the elements neglected. And, worse than all, the knowledge is apt to be of the mechanical, text-book order, which discourages original thought, accepts everything on authority, and almost disqualifies the student for effective work as a teacher. Until these evils are corrected, the normal school will be compelled to give academic training in self-defence.

The idea of trained teachers had its inception in Europe. Prussia was the first to enforce special training, and such was the admiration awakened by the brilliant success of her normal schools, or teachers' seminaries, that the Prussian system with but slight changes has spread throughout the civilized world. The origin of normal schools in the United States may be traced directly to this source. The Prussian schools are regarded as strictly "professional," and yet their course of instruction is not now, and never has been, exclusively, or mainly, professional in the sense that some of our modern critics would have us use that term. But, on the contrary, only about one-sixteenth of the time in the lower, and less than one-eighth in the higher classes, is occupied in the study of didactics proper. The remaining time, except a small portion devoted to religious instruction, is spent in giving the student a thorough training in the studies of the public-school course, and in such of the higher branches as are deemed especially valuable to the teacher. What has been said of the Prussian school, may with equal propriety be said of normal schools in general. In Prussia we find the parent stem, in other countries including our own, the branches. Their object is the same everywhere,—to promote civilization by furnishing a class of trained teachers skilled in every phase of school work. The details of management and execution only, are, in different countries, adjusted to the political circumstances and educational needs. In all, we find three distinctly-marked lines of training:—Academic, Didactic, and Practice Teaching. These are equally professional, for all are taught with especial reference to the teacher's work. In fact this is the focal point upon which every exercise is directed. The professional education of the teacher, then, comprehends a symmetrical training in all of these departments. Anything short of it impairs the unity of culture, and in that degree injures his usefulness as a teacher.

Another view of this question was hinted at in the opening of this paper.

The object of the purely-literary institution is to give a general culture, and it cannot be expected to step aside to look after specialties. Its true mission is to lay a broad foundation, upon which all professions may securely build. At this point the several professional schools must take up the work and give special training in those branches which underlie their respective professions. It will thus be seen that academic instruction, or "instruction in subject-matter," properly belongs to all, but not in the same sense. The literary institution teaches the history of England and Rome as a means of culture; the school of law, as a means of tracing out the origin and historical development of jurisprudence. The literary institution teaches civil engineering and chemistry for the discipline which the study affords; the school of mines teaches these subjects with a view to their application in the arts of mining and metallurgy. The literary institution teaches anatomy and physiology as sciences; the medical college teaches them in the light of their application in the arts of surgery and medicine. In the school of letters the common branches are considered only in the sense of their relative importance as elements of education; in the normal school they receive special treatment in view of their practical application in the art of teaching. Literary institutions occupy the broad field of general culture, and foster science for its own sake and its inherent value to the human race; professional schools confine themselves to separate channels of effort, and each tempers its work to some special phase of practical life.

This paper was discussed by JEROME ALLEN, of New York, B. G. NORTHROP, of Connecticut, J: W. DICKINSON, of Massachusetts, T. C. H. VANCE, of Kentucky, J. R. MALONE, of Texas, S. R. THOMPSON, of Nebraska, G. J. ORR, of Georgia, JAMES McCOSH, of New Jersey, and J: M. GREGORY, of Illinois.

This discussion manifested a variety of opinions, as to what was legitimate work in the school-room.

Mr. Soldan said:—

Mr. President:—It appears to me, as if the argument proceeded on a wrong supposition; namely, this: that the teacher needs just as much knowledge of the common branches as the physician or the lawyer, and that, since the schools for the education of the latter do not pay any attention to those studies, professional institutions for the education of teachers, Normal Schools, should not allow to them a place on the program; they should be simply and pure'y "professional." This supposition is entirely erroneous. For the teacher, unlike other professional men, needs a thorough knowledge of all the common branches *in his professional life*, his work lies in them and with them. He needs a knowledge of the common school studies which is deeper and more extensive than that possessed by the pupils of the highest grade of any common school, for it will be conceded that the teacher should have a greater amount of positive knowledge in the studies which he is to teach than his pupils, even if they be of the highest grade. Where this special knowledge of common-school studies, (exceeding the ordinary grammar-school limitations both in depth and extent), is to be acquired, if not in a Normal School, is more than I can say.

There is another consideration that speaks for the retention of common-school studies of a higher grade, in Normal Schools. The Science of Education and methods of instruction may, it is true, be taught in the abstract. There are certain principles in teaching geography, for instance, which its character as an inductive science makes valid, no matter what special principle it is applied to, and we may therefore speak of *Methods of Teaching Geography* in general. But this is only one side of professional instruction; the principles found must be applied in particular cases, in order to be of some advantage to the student. He must show, for example, how he would teach the change of seasons, or the degrees of latitude and longitude, etc. How this instruction in applied methods of teaching is to be imparted unless in connection with the common-school studies as part of Normal-School work, is again more than I can say.

I suggest that the real question is not "Shall common-school studies have a place in a Normal-School Course" but rather "What place, etc., shall they have?" If they are studied from the teachers' stand-point, as applied methods of instruction they form an essential, important part of Normal-School Work, and any attempt to throw them out will cripple the Normal-School Cause.

GEO. P. BROWN, of the State Normal School at Terre Haute, Indiana, then read the following paper entitled

SOME OF THE OBSTRUCTIONS, NATURAL AND INTERPOSED, THAT RESIST THE FORMATION AND GROWTH OF THE PEDAGOGIC PROFESSION.

The statement of the theme assignd to me for discussion, implies that a pedagogic profession, if not alredy an establisht fact, is possibl, and that there ar obstructions in the way of its formation and growth.

Whether or not the business of teaching shal be permitted by the public voice to take rank among the so-cald professions, is a matter of small consequence. If it wer the main purpose of this paper to discus the ways and means for securing this result, the end, if attaind, would be of too little valu to justify me in preparing, or you in listening to this essay.

What is a profession?

It is not esy to formulate a definition that shal be generally accepted. WEBSTER'S Dictionary contains the following:—"A profession is a vocation other than that of the mechanic, the farmer, the merchant and the like, which one follows for subsistence and which he professes to understand."

This does not giv much aid in helping us to find the boundary line between a profession and a vocation that is not a profession. It is not clear to the common mind why the vocation of him who practices agriculture, may not be cald a profession, with as much propriety, as is the vocation of him who teaches the practice of agriculture. The definition is not clear becaus it suggests no satisfactory basis of classification of vocation into professional and non-professional.

A study of this vague expression of a stil vaguer conception, leads to the discovery of some of the elements that all wil acknowledge, must be in a profession. A profession is a vocation and not an avocation. It is the chief or principal business of a man's life and not something that is taken up at leisure times for amusement or for profit. A profession is followed for subsistence. It has these elements in common with non-professional callings. The definiton quoted above suggests another element, which I think wil help us to find the distinguishing mark of a profession. It is containd in the claus, "which one professes to understand." To understand is to hav "just and adequate ideas of;" it is to know the thing in itself and in its relation to other things. It is to know the principls and truths that ar the germ of the thing, and the laws by which the thing has grown from this germ. To understand a thing is to hav a scientific knowledge of it.

"Scientific knowledge, except when of axiomatic principls, requires conviction of the truth of the givn proposition and a knowledge of its reason or caus."—*Aristotle.*

"A science is a complement of cognitions, having in form the character of logical perfection; and in matter, the character of real truth."—*Sir Wm. Hamilton.*

He who possesses such a knowledge of his vocation, sustains a very different relation to it than does he who works by the direction of another, in obedience to givn rules. This difference of relation is sufficiently marked to form the basis for the separation of the vocations of men into two classes; viz.,—The Liberal Arts and the Industrial Arts.

He who practices a liberal art is an artist. He is fre from the limitations which attend ignorance and subjection to authority. The artisan can practice only an industrial art. He must be ever subject to these limitations.

Whether an art is industrial or liberal depends not upon the accident of its being the practice of agriculture or of medicine, but upon the kind of knowledge of his art which he who practices it possesses. HENRY BESSEMER in his manufacture of bronze, or of steel, practiced a liberal art. The physician who simply follows the rules of practice laid down by his author for the treatment of diseases, practices an industrial art. The difference between a trade and a profession is not found in the nature of the work done, nor in the manner in which it is done; but rather in the reason which exists in the mind of the workman for so doing; it is the difference between blind obedience to law, and being a law unto one's self.

The pedagogic profession is, then, the practice of the liberal art of guiding the young to a harmonious development of all their faculties through their own efforts.

No one doubts that there ar teachers at the work in every state of the Union who ar artists, and may be truly said to practice teaching as a liberal art. Since this is tru, it follows that there is a pedagogic profession alredy formd. It only remains, therefore, for me to make mention of some of the obstructions which resist the growth of this profession.

It has been thus far assumed that by *pedagogic profession* is ment the vocation of school teaching. But "Pedagogics" is a word of much larger content. A system of pedagogics is understood to provide for the complete education of the individual. Such a system includes the influence of the family, the church, the state, and civil and polite society, as wel as the influence of the school.

Education is defined by some German writer to be "the harmonious and equabl evolution of the human powers by a method based on the nature of the mind; every power of the soul to be unfolded, every crude principl of life stird up and nourisht, all one-sided culture avoided, and the impulses on which the strength and worth of man rest, carefully attended to."

JAMES MILL says that the purpose of education is "to render the individual, as much as possibl, an instrument of happiness, first to himself and next to other beings."

JOHN STUART MILL defines education as "The culture which each generation purposely givs to those who ar to be its successors in order to qualify them for at least keeping up, and if possibl, raising, the improvement which has been attaind."

These statements wil serv to define that product which results from the combind influence of all the different forms of education upon the individual.

We ar cald upon to apply the principl of division of labor, so activ in every other department of human thought, and determin how much of this education it is the business of the *school* to furnish. The failure to define clearly the purpose of the school as distinct from other institutions of society, is an obstruction to the growth of the profession of teaching. By school I mean the common school. None, I presume, question the fact that teachers in our technical schools and universities practice a profession.

The school has been defind as "an institution whose purpose is to realize scholarship and behavior." If this is intended as a definition of the common school, the definition needs to be defind. What is meant by scholarship? Is it lerning or erudition? Certainly not. Is it knowledge in the more general sense of information? If so, what information?

One clas, large in numbers, if not in intelligence, would hav the schools teach the different trades. They would hav them take the place of the apprentice system that has falln into disuse. They would hav the children leav the school "able to do something;" by which they mean make a pair of boots, or a coat, or build a house. And since the common-school system does not giv this information it is pronounced "aimles;" and it is complaind that the children "drift"; and that "the tide does not set toward heaven." This I understand to be the view of a popular Scientific Journal, which wields a large influence in this country.

Others again, and these ar very intelligent, deem the scholastic purpose of the school the acquiring of a power to master books. They would hav each individual enter into and posses that inheritance of knowledge which is his birthright, befor he shal make any effort to ad to this inheritance. The first object with them is to fil the mind with the thoughts of others.

Stil others se in the schools a mental gymnasium for calling into activ exercise the different faculties of the soul and training them to habits of harmonious action.

These thre ideas ar sufficiently distinct to form the basis for radically-different modes of procedure in the school. The one bends everything to training in manual skil; the second makes everything subserv the mastery of the abstract. It exalts the text-book. The third labors for clearnes and distinctnes of vision, by a constant appeal to the senses. It exalts the object.

And so, too, when we declare the purpose of the school to be the realization of good behavior, we know not what it means without further explanation. *Behavior* as here used evidently means something more than behavior; it means conduct. This wider signification suggests not alone man's relation to his fellow-man, but his relation to GOD. To what extent shal the school teach the latter? Here we enter a boundless field for discussion. One clas would make the school the nursery of the church; another clas would exclude all religious teaching from the schools; another while holding to the divorce of the school from the church, would make the church to which they belong an exception.

It is needless to amplify this thought further. Enough has been said to show that there is no clearly-defind purpose of the school in the minds of either teachers or peopl. This lack of definition I hold to be one of the obstructions that resist the growth of the profession of teaching.

Intimately associated with the want of definition of the purpose of the school ar the loose and indefinit notions we hav of what constitutes the Science of Teaching.

"Science is a perfected system of real truths." Viewd in the light of this definition, there is littl ground for claiming the existence of a science of teaching. But few sciences hav yet reacht the ideal perfection. Probably none unless it is the science of mathematics. Yet there ar collections of truth, logically arranged, each group resting upon some foundation principl or notion for its base, that approximate more or les nearly to that "complement of cognitions," which constitute a science. These ar cald *sciences;* and it is among these that we must place the science of teaching, if, perchance, it, at present, deservs a place evn here.

A science from a slightly-different point of view, "is a body of principls and deductions to explain some object-matter." The object-matter of the science of teaching is the growth of a human soul. The science of teaching is dependent upon other sciences for those principls and deductions which ar to guide the teacher in his selection of instrumentalities and methods for the education of the child.

Prominent among these other sciences is the Science of Psychology. Without the existence of this science, the science of teaching could not hav a being. The state of indetermination of this science at the present time is an obstruction to the formation of a science of teaching, and to the growth of the pedagogic profession. Our libraries contain volumes, each filld with the theories and speculations of all the past ages, and the theories and speculations of the author. After years of study and concurrent experience in teaching, the industrious teacher wil be abl to select from this mountain of words, the few grains of truth that bear upon his work; but these ar not found, oftentimes, except through experience in teaching. Before teaching shal become a full-grown profession, it is necessary that some wise man who is a practical teacher of long and varied experience and observation, shal select from the mas of sense and nonsense cald the science of Psychology, those facts and laws that it concerns the teacher of children to know. There is promis that one in every way qualified to do this work, wil, at an erly day, supply this pressing want.

The growth of the profession of teaching must be slow while there is so littl known of the science of teaching. Much has been writtn and spokn *about* the science. We ar confidently assured that the science is. What the teacher needs is to hav the principls and laws which constitute this science formulated and arranged so that he may be abl to lern *what* the science is. Nor is it enough that the common-school teacher be enabld to lern the principls and laws which constitute the essentials of the science. He must be led to make those deductions as to the matter and method which shal accord with those principls and laws.

All of this calls for the formation of a Body of Doctrin which shal set limits to the school and to the range of matter taught therein; shal define more closely its purpose; shal set forth the laws of mental growth and mental activity, and the bearings of physiology upon education; shal determin the kind and quantity of matter to be taught in different periods of mental growth; shal settl, in general, the nature of the methods to be used in the different grades and in the different branches of instruction.

Professional schools hav thus far confind themselvs to giving instruction in the object-matter of the science of teaching, and chiefly in that part of the object-matter that furnishes the instrumentalities used for promoting the education of the pupils; while comparativly littl of that object-matter is taught, which must furnish the principls and laws governing the development of mind, and from which must be deduced the methods of teaching in the different stages of growth. Thus academic instruction in the different branches of lerning, supplemented by some empirical instruction in "methods," has constituted the professional instruction givn in these schools.

That a thoro mastery of the object-matter of the science is a necessary condition to entering upon the study of the science, is admitted. The mistake is in stopping short in our professional school with the realization of the condition. Our normal students ar graduated when they hav reacht that place in their education where they ar prepared to begin the study of the science of teaching.

The obstructions thus far mentiond may be calld natural. They ar such as arise in the preliminary stages of growth of an educational system. They wil disappear when greater knowledge and more wisdom hav been attaind.

There is another clas of obstructions that I know not whether to call natural or interposed, which ar worthy of notice.

Among these is the low standard of qualification required of the teacher, by the peopl. ROGER ASCHAM wrote, more than thre hundred years ago:

"And it is a pity that commonly more care is had, yea, and that among wise men, to find out rather a cunning man for their Horse than a cunning man for their children. For to one they wil generally give a Stipend of two hundred Crowns by the year, and ar loth to offer the other two hundred Shillings. God that sitteth in Heaven laugheth their choice to scorn and rewardeth their liberality as it should. For he suffereth them to hav tame and wel-orderd Horses, but wild and unfortunate children; and, therefore, in the end they find more Pleasure in their Horse than Comfort in their Children."

This is not an inapt description of the indifference of "wise men" in this afternoon of the nineteenth century.

Few men to-day would entrust the training of a valuabl horse to one who presented no more convincing evidence of his fitnes for the trust than does he who is chosen to conduct the education of their children.

Children who ar yet in their teens, who hav had enough school instruction, perhaps, to enabl them to answer the required per cent of the stock of questions that ar asked by the examiner, but who hav had no other preparation than this instruction, givn by teachers no better fitted to teach than ar they,—such children ar elected by the peopl for the responsibl position of teacher. What a farce! What wonder that superficial reasoners and light-headed magazine writers proclaim the public-school system a failure. Here, in the school-room, the place for which every other part of the school system was constructed; the centre toward which every other part of the system converges; the very key-stone of the arch; the place where the work is to be done and the ends realized for which so grand a system of machinery has been constructed, for which millions of money hav been expended; here, where more than anywhere else is needed the master, is placed the child in years, yet a child in experience, and in intellectual and moral fitnes for his vocation.

But this wil not always be so. The peopl hav constructed a grand and gigantic machine. They hav been too interested in perfecting its parts and adjusting them to each other, to attend to much else. They ar now beginning to ask the purpose for which this machinery was erected. This wil lead to the discovery that it is all of littl worth without a competent teacher in the school-room. And when that discovery is made, teaching wil soon become a profession.

Another obstruction consequent upon the one just mentiond is the uncertainty of the teacher's tenure of his position. Since "any one can teach school," rotation in office is the practice in most districts.

The prevailing custom of limiting every teacher's term of service to a singl year in our cities and towns, and to a singl term in the country, tends to restrain competent and worthy men and women from choosing teaching as a vocation. Men and women made of the stuf of which the best teachers ar made, ar unwilling to run the gauntlet of a re-election every year, especially when merit and efficient service count for so littl. It is no exaggeration to affirm that in a majority of towns and cities of the northern states, the time and energy of the superintendent or principal ar about equally divided between his duties to the schools and coddling the Board of Education and their friends. The conscientious teacher is pretty certain to make enemies of some of his patrons. These become activ while his friends ar passiv. One activ enemy is more effectiv than fifty passiv friends. If the teacher is not to be driven from his position at the annual "hiring" season, he must strengthen himself in his personal relations with his Board. This takes much time and more thought.

So long as personal friendships, party politics, church relations, or anything else than the character of the teacher and his work ar controlling or important elements in deciding whether the teacher shal continue to serv any community, ernest and capabl men and women wil hesitate to adopt teaching as a profession. Let it be made the rule that honest and efficient service requires no re-election, and that only the dishonest and inefficient, need fear dismissal, and one of the obstructions to the growth of the profession of teaching would be removed.

There is a growing disposition throughout the country to employ women as teachers in the common schools. In the cities and towns most of the teachers ar women, and the relativ number of women teachers in the country schools is increasing every year. I do not make mention of this as an obstruction to the growth of this profession, and yet there ar some reasons for so regarding it. Woman's natural and necessary field of labor is the family. Whatever other institution she may enter, she enters only to remain temporarily. This must necessarily be the rule. So long as circumstances ar morally certain to arise, over which women "do not wish to have any control," that take them from the work of the school to the more useful and necessary position of hed and heart of the home, they wil engage in teaching as a temporary vocation. This does not prevent them from receiving the necessary professional training and following the vocation in the tru professional spirit and with professional skil. The training which prepares them for the school is, moreover, an excellent preparation for the proper discharge of the duties and responsibilities of the home. While this is all evidently tru, the tendency is for young women to seek employment in the schools as a temporary expedient for erning a subsistence until such a time as they shal be chosen to preside at the fireside.

I hav hastily presented in a desultory and imperfect manner some of the obstructions to the growth of the teacher's profession. Some of these wil be removed in the inevitabl onward march of culture and civilization. Their disappearance can be hastend by a wise and united effort of educators.

This paper was discussed by F. W. PARKER, of Massachusetts, J. W. BARKER, of New York, I. W. ANDREWS, of Ohio, JAS. JOHONNOT, of New York, B. G. NORTHROP, of Connecticut, G: P. BROWN, of Indiana, J. A. COOPER, of Pennsylvania, and M. C. FERNALD, of Maine. The discussion showed a wide difference of opinion in regard to the views expressed in the paper.

J. W. BARKER, Editor of the Buffalo School Journal, said:—"I rise to express regret that there is any occasion for the expression made by several gentlemen, that there is a real or apparent controversy between any of the different divisions of the educational forces of the country. If the true theory of education were understood by all, if we really did know what true education means, if there were a unity of understanding, there would, of course, be a unity of action in all educational work. But it must not be forgotten, that the Normal Schools in the entire world have hardly passed their experimental state. The Normal-School question is still an open one. There are those who cannot see why boys and girls should be educated at public expense for the *profession* of teaching and doctors and lawyers must be made at private expense. And then there is a very large and intelligent class who earnestly believe that the very best qualification for teachers are to be had at the Schools where the sciences in the educational course of study are best taught. I will make two assertions. The first you will all endorse, the second some of you will question—(1) no person can teach clearly what he does not clearly understand; (2) what he clearly understands he can teach. There must be, there will be grades of excellence in teaching. But the radical truth remains. The best qualification for the teacher is a clear and thorough understanding of what is to be taught.

Allusion has been made to Ex-Gov. Robinson, of New York. His position on the School question has been severely criticised. I am no Democrat. I am a positive Republican. But injustice has been done Gov. Robinson. He questioned the propriety of giving a high-school education at public expense. But he did emphasize, most earnestly, the importance of greater thoroughness in the common branches of education. He would have the children taught to read and write *well.* He might have erred upon the question of High Schools, but he was entirely correct on the more important subject—thorough education in the Common Schools. The greatest impediment in the way of professional teaching, is the want of enthusiasm born of strong faith in the work in which he is engaged.

Third Day's Proceedings.

THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 15, 1880.

Normal Department met July 15, 11:30, A. M. Geo. W. Fetter, of Philadelphia, Secretary, being absent on account of illness, John Kennedy, of New York, was chosen Secretary *pro tem.* The President said that the papers read before the General Association by Grace C. Bibb, J: W. Dickinson, and W: T. Harris, would be the basis of discussion. James Johonnot thought that the philosophy of Dr. Harris's paper upsets established theories of education. It conflicts with the doctrines of Mr. Dickinson's paper. Geo. P. Brown, of Indiana, defended Dr. Harris's position of making the child the heir of the experience of the past. Miss Bibb thought that we do not distinguish between different stages of education. Every subject has its own methods of development. Text-books are prepared in different ways in order to be adapted to different pupils, some in the Perceptive period, others in the Reflective, and so on.

Jerome Allen, of New York, touched upon the statement of C: F. Adams, Jr., that we are passing through a text-book era, and dwelt on the abuse of text-books. G. L. Osborne, of Missouri, said that Dr. Harris discussed not the philosophy of education, but the use of one instrumentality, text-books. Mr. Brown reiterated the necessity of keeping distinct the two types of teaching, abstract and concrete. He discussed the origin of ideas, of sense, and the origin of intellectual concepts. Mr. Johonnot maintained that all ideas originate in sense perceptions. J. C. Gilchrist, President of the Department, asked the privilege of saying a few words here, and traced the movement of the child's mind through the process of sensation, differentiation, classification, expression, etc. His remarks were followed by a general and warm discussion on the origin of ideas which showed much divergence of opinion, but earnest study of the important topic.

T: W. Bicknell appeared and asked the Department to elect three members of the National Council of Education as its representatives. Louis Soldan, of Missouri, Wm. F. Phelps, of Minnesota, and Grace C. Bibb, of Missouri, were chosen. Gen. Eaton called attention to the necessity of discussing the Appliances for Teaching. He would like an expression from this Department as to what would constitute a complete set of appliances for Elementary Education. He spoke of the embarrassments arising in the art of teaching, and mentioned the apparatus in the schools of Norway and Sweden. He suggested the appointment of a committee to make a report next year.

Adjourned.

Fourth Day's Proceedings.

FRIDAY MORNING, JULY 16, 1880.

Normal Department, July 16, 11:30. A motion was adopted that a committee of four be appointed to prepare a report on Appliances and Apparatus for Elementary Education, the retiring President of the Department to be chairman. J. A. Cooper, of Pennsylvania, T. C. H. Vance, of Kentucky, and Mrs. Martha A. Meeker, of Oswego, New York, were appointed said committee. The Department adjourned, *sine die.*

ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 13, 1880.

At 11½ o'clock, A. M., the Elementary Department was called to order. the President, J. H. SMART, Superintendent of Public Instruction in Indiana, in the Chair, and R. W. STEVENSON, Superintendent of Schools of Columbus, Ohio, was appointed Secretary, *pro tempore.* The Chair announced that the business to be transacted was the appointment of the Committee on the Nomination of Officers for the ensuing year. On motion a Committee consisting of ZALMON RICHARDS, of Washington, E. O. VAILE, of Chicago, and O. V. TOUSLEY, of Minneapolis, was appointed.

Adjourned.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 14, 1880.

At 11 A. M. the Department was called to order by the President. The Committee on Nomination of Officers reported the following persons nominated for the ensuing year:

President, O. V. TOUSLEY, Superintendent of Schools of Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Vice-President, R. W. STEVENSON, Superintendent of Schools, of Columbus, Ohio.

Secretary, J. B. ROBERTS, Principal of the Indianapolis High School.

A Committee was also appointed, consisting of WILLIAM E. SHELDON, of Boston, J. H. SMART, of Indianapolis, and E. O. VAILE, of Chicago, to arrange for the discussion of the Kindergarten-System, the meeting to be called immediately after the close of the regular session.

Adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

An extra meeting of the Elementary Department was held shortly after the adjournment of the regular session, which was presided over by the Chairman of the Committee appointed for that purpose, WILLIAM E. SHELDON, of Boston, Editor of the Primary Teacher. After considerable discussion, by various teachers, Mrs. KRAUS-BOELTE, of New York, was invited to make an address, on the following day, at 11½ o'clock, A. M., at the same place, upon the Kindergarten.

The meeting then adjourned.

Third Day's Proceedings.

THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 15, 1880.

At 11½ A. M. the second extra meeting was held at the Children's Temple, WILLIAM E. SHELDON, Chairman, presiding. Mrs. KRAUS-BOELTE, of New York, read a paper on the Kindergarten-method. At the close of the reading, Mr. ZALMON RICHARDS, of Washington, presented the following resolution:

Resolved, That this body of representatives of the National Educational Association informally called together, to hear statements in regard to Kindergarten work, respectfully request the executive officers of the National Educational Association to provide specially for the representation of the Kindergarten, at its next annual meeting, and for the presentation of a paper upon the true relation of the Kindergarten to public instruction.

It was adopted. This was followed by a discussion regarding the calling of another meeting for a still further consideration of the subject, but it was ruled by the Chair that the Committee having fulfilled the duty assigned them, were discharged from further service, and the meeting adjourned finally.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The general session of the National Educational Association devoted to the Elementary Department, convened at 2 o'clock, P. M.

The President, J. H. SMART, Superintendent of Public Instruction in Indiana, in the Chair.

Upon the Association being called to order, N. A. CALKINS, of New York, as Chairman of a Committee appointed for that purpose, reported the nomination of B. G. NORTHOP, of Connecticut, N. A. CALKINS, of New York, and A. P. MARBLE, of Massachusetts, as representatives for the Elementary Department in the National Council of Education. The report was adopted.

The President, after a few brief introductory remarks, presented Miss MARY W. HINMAN, of Laporte, Indiana, who read the following paper, entitled

THE PRACTICAL USE OF REFERENCE BOOKS.

[This paper is printed in Miss HINMAN's spelling, and not in accordance with the modified spellings as mentioned on p. 18. It was feared that some of the modified spellings would not meet her approval].

Mrs. BROWN, now aged twenty-five, was educated at the city High School. She graduated at seventeen, in white dress and slippers and with an essay on "Moral Tones in Society."

She was like many girls we know, bright, affectionate, indolent. Her ideals of life were of the thinnest nebulæ, with here and there a spot of more solid brightness which might have been a plan if developed. But as she grew older it seemed to be quite enough to do as most of the people around her did.

Once she was literally stung into action. She heard a young man say to his mother in a half-contemptuous, half-affectionate way, "Nonsense mother, it's all very well for you to talk about honesty in business, and honesty in politics, you just don't know anything about it practically." Would her children outgrow her influence in that way? Well, why not? She goes to reading, reads the foreign news, she will get interested in these English elections; and when she finds in a half-column of the newspaper, six references to things she knows nothing of, she resists a well-formed habit of passing them by: she goes to the Public Library and asks for something on the English Constitution. She is given Bagehot's Essays, that brilliant and delightful book which has given to many an American a new idea of that slow-moving, slow-ripening force—the English Government.

But she is soon overwhelmed by allusions like these: The Carlton, The Reform Arts of '82 and '67, Life Peers, Orders in Council, Privy Council, Lord GREY, Lord MALMSBURY. She says it is one of the books that takes for granted that you know everything. She is an honest woman, she does not skim the book and talk glibly about it next day. She gives it up sadly, and thinks she has no mind.

I believe this woman well represents the average mind trained in our schools. These are the facts; great numbers of our boys and girls go out helpless in the use of books. To hunt up a historical question from a dozen unfamiliar sources seems to them quite too difficult for any but very learned people. Remember, we have, for the most part, commonplace material to work with, those who are not consumed with a burning desire for knowledge, who are all too easily satisfied with what they have done. A certain ribbon-tied parchment that is kept among the family treasures, is an emblem to them of something accomplished once and for all in the literary line, and they allude to "what I did at school" much as the elderly deacon who has prayed the same prayer for twenty years, alludes to the undoubted genuineness of his conversion.

This must not be, or all our work is wasted. They must not stop with the little they get at school.

We delight to tell them on Commencement Days that they have "just begun to learn," and that they must "go on," and their own effusiöns on that day are full of vague aspirations to that effect. But do we show the poor things how to go on? Does not the very ease which they now do text-book work, or reference reading that is found for them to the very page, discourage them when they must work alone? Mrs. BROWN, when at school, read several pages about OLIVER CROMWELL and it made a fine show on examination day, but did that help her to find out about Orders in Council, or to trace the growth of a Kingly Prerogrative, or to find out any other of the allusions necessary to make clear to her those essays on the English Constitution? Better that she should have come out with a more scanty knowledge of the facts themselves, but knowing how to find them easily. Her teacher should have shown her that this complicated machinery of English government had been growing for eight centuries, should have drilled her to pick out the account of that growth from the long line, HUME, MACAULAY, GREEN, LECKY, MARTINEAU. Then it would not have seemed such a task to her to find there how the English Cabinet came to be what it is, how many men are in it and what they have to do. She should have been so drilled in the use of the Cyclopedia that she would not have forgotten to go to it, or have thought of it as she does now "so mixed up, you can't find anything." Why, she does not even think to look in the dictionary for borough or shire.

More than that, she should be familiar with the many books that are not solid histories but helpful as accessories. She may not have read Higginson's English Statesmen, but if she knows its general character she knows it has help for her just now and she turns to it for pictures of GLADSTONE and Earl GREY, she finds by simple allusion what "Apposition," "Division of the House" mean.

She would have thought instantly of Macaulay's Life and Letters, if she had been trained to look always for valuable material in the biographies of great men, and would have found there a half dozen eloquent pages which would have made real to her forever, the Reform Bill and Parliament House and the excited men who filled it, and the English people outside who cheered Lord GREY and broke the windows of Sir CHARLES WELLESLEY'S coach.

But who was to show her a course like this which should lead her to a real understanding and enjoyment of Bagehot? Not father nor mother nor friends who knew no more about it than she, not the absorbed-looking cultured people whom she sees now and then at the libraries, but she should have had practice in such use of books long ago at school. It would have been worth more to her than all the details of the battle of Naseby. Learning the details must come in if it can, but its place is second, not first.

We talk of free libraries. Yes, free as a summer day is free. But has every one a key to unlock the finest delights of a June morning?

When we see people stand before a great library and gaze at the ba[illegible] of the choicest books, or leaf them over in a listless way and then turn with relief to the novels and light essays as the only ones they can understand, we realize that books can be free only to the free minds and the open eyes.

In the first place the young person is bewildered with the number of books already issued and constantly coming from the press. He must be taught to find his way in this labyrinth, picking and choosing for his own needs. He must know of the authors who will always repay his perusal, he must learn to recognize at sight the vast number that are better left alone. He must come to think of history and men in the contemporary as well as the continuous way, he must know by experience the use of indexes, he must master the art of getting what he wants out of a book which he has not time to read through.

Perhaps some will say that there is no need of a special drill for this. Then I must think that they have had little experience with the ignorance common among boys and girls. A woman, who with infinite patience had taught a shopful of ignorant girls how to use the sewing machine, said to me pathetically, "Why I just had to get down on my knees and teach 'em to treadle!" And this came to me as a most apt illustration when I had to show a girl of fifteen how to find Augustus Cæsar in the Cyclopedia.

Ask a dozen of them, boys and girls, to find that name and report in class whatever they may learn there of the battle of Philippi. Some will look for the first name, some for the last, few can tell you whether the British and American Cyclopedias have the same system as to names. Some will not find Philippi in the closely-printed columns, and I believe two or three of the number will assure you that Augustus Cæsar is not there. They may even explain it in as curious a way as did a Hampton colored student the supposed absence of Hannibal from the Cyclopedia—"Hannibal was a black man, and they wouldn't put him in."

I am not thinking of boys and girls who breathe in culture with their home air, who have to thank intelligent ancestors that they know by instinct what others must learn, who cannot remember the time when they were not familiar with the best books and critical talks about them; I am thinking of those who must get culture by hard work. It is such as these, the average student, that should get most benefit from the improved schools of to-day. Those who were destined to be gfeat men got along very well with the schools of fifty years ago.

There are two things necessary in order that the young people should come to use books with ease. First, they should have free access to them. One would think that there was so intimate a connection between libraries and schools that no papers were needed at an educational association to discuss it, did we not know such facts as these: that there a[illegible]es with libraries maintained at public expense, and yet where the bo[illegible] neither of a kind nor so arranged as to be of any use for reference, [illegible]ooks arranged as to size and color, the British Cyclopedia considered an extravaganza, while campaign lives of generals and statesmen abound and yearly renewed sets of Mrs. Holmes and Southworth; did we not know also of good libraries in school buildings which must be used as sparingly as the best parlor of old times; and flourishing towns with much vaulted "system of schools" where there is not even a dictionary in the High School. But all this is improving and we find that the greatest trouble is to use rightly what we have.

This work must begin with the Primary room.

In the Primary grades children spend in most schools, four years. It is no new idea that there should be books here as the best incentive to learn to read, and that the teacher should, now and then read something attractive. So far, so good, but even thus early let us have no compromise with 2nd class books or poor rehashes of great ones. Children's minds are stronger than we think and they come insensibly to enjoy the style of the best authors. Let them have What Darwin Saw, Kingsley's Water Babies, Fairy Land of Science, instead of a dreary "Book of Natural History for the Young," by some one who publishes a suspiciously-long series. Why not feed their craving for the marvellous, on Greek and Roman Mythology, those joyous stories which speak to us yet of the ancient periods and the youth of the world.

In HAWTHORNE's charming and whimsical version let them wander with PERSEUS to the end of the world or find with HERCULES the Golden Apples.

But this must be the by-play, to be kept in mind and helped on whenever possible by the busy, too-busy primary teacher. There is, however, an exercise that must be worked up with great care and persistence, the use of the dictionary. I believe a child should be taught to look in the Cyclopedia and dictionary for every object in his little range of interest, and this year by year extended till a flower, a stone, a name, a place suggests to him books and he will know how to use them without a moment's loss of time. We can make even the child understand and use that formidable volume, the Unabridged Dictionary. Generally, all he cares for it is to look at a few of the pictures, then it is an old thing. But it is of things we do not understand that we easily tire. The child chases the butterfly and admires only for a moment the rich coloring of its wings; but the story of its wonderful origin being known, its antennæ and eyes examined through a microscope, its palpitating body watched, the interest becomes a growing one.

So they shall understand this great book and learn to use it. Many grown people do not use the dictionary with any ease and from this very lack of early training.

A cultivated lady said to me this summer that she was always finding some new table or list in the back of it and that she often stupidly wondered where she might get information on this or that simple subject before referring to the dictionary. She said the habit of using it had been too recently formed. How many history teachers, lacking illustrated books, would think immediately to turn to the dictionary for a good picture of the pillory and stocks, the parts of a feudal castle, the clepsydra, perfect representations of the ancient alphabets? And I know of more than one house where the dictionary's chief use is to preserve dried ferns and funeral flowers and where it is packed away under a stand beneath the gazetteer and the backgammon board. Under such circumstances it requires positive heroism to get it out and use it.

But to go back to the little ones. There is pronunciation to begin with. As soon as they can read a word of two syllables they can learn an accent mark and vowel sounds. You hear two children at the school-house gate: "I tell ye, its dunkey." No it isn't, it's donkey, Uncle Will says so." But they will not dispute the "big book," and will learn thus early that there is some authority above the varying standard of father and Uncle Will. If they trip each other up on pronunciation all the better, they will meanwhile be learning to use the book and to regard it as an authority. If required to bring small dictionaries from home, as is the custom in some schools, they will learn all the more quickly this easy turning from place to place, finding words, synonyms, learning to use the little tables.

Now they will look for strange words found in their reading-lesson. They cannot read all they find, that would be dull and they have not the time; nor is that the main object: but they are learning to find words. The next step will be to show them the s-y-n line for synonyms—they must have help in this cross-reference work—then be made to suggest words that they should think would be synonyms; they will in this way come to be fertile in expedients in finding the thing they want when afterwards they use Cyclopedias and other books; if they do not find it under one subject or word, they will be quick to try another and another.

A class of grade-scholars were sent to the public library to look up about india-rubber. They could not find it and their complaints were loud. They had the deeply-injured feeling of those who have condescended to seek knowledge and yet have not been instantly smiled upon. The irate librarian who told me the story said: "Now *didn't* they know enough to tell them to look for caoutchouc?"

Now for some of the tables in the back part of the dictionary. When you have read to them of PERSEUS his name must be found in the table of Greek and Latin names, and again for the older ones in the Noted Names of Fiction: and so the child learns that there are many sources of information for anything really worth knowing. Some will be delighted enough to find here a whole column about an old friend, Jack Horner, and here too are Ali Baba and Blue Beard and St. Nicholas. They will come to think that there is nothing that what they call the "big book" does not know.

There will be some in every school among the older ones and brighter ones who will get still more out of this book. The boy who has a passion for machinery will thank you for showing him the perfect models of engines in the back part, the girl who, like one I know, has gathered and blown the eggs of a hundred birds will recognize here her old favorites and make new friends. The dullest child can be shown the twenty forms of snow crystals and told to see how many of them he can catch on his coat sleeve on a winter's day.

By all this drill they will not become perfect in pronunciation nor perfect in anything else, but they will have become familiar with some valuable sources of information. The possession of any number of facts cannot equal this in importance. Tell the children nothing that they can find out for themselves, but show them how to find. By doing this persistently but in so varied a way as to keep them from weariness, you will give children of nine or ten such facility in the use of dictionary and small Cyclopedia as bright children in cultured families do not attain till in their teens and those less happily circumstanced, never.

Of course it is easy to spoil this and make every reference book odious. It is marvellous how some teachers can ruin the best ideas, their ingenuity in this line is past belief unless we have seen it. They hear that science should be taught in schools. Now by what diabolical means do they in three-weeks' time make a child hate "the beautiful flowers, my dear," and look with disgust at a little science text-book that in better hands would have been charming.

They always say of new school methods—"Why, I've done that for years!" What is it that makes their talk about "influence" so nauseating? And we believe in being "earnest," but somehow they give us an insane desire to be only frivolous by their burdened talk about "the work."

Such a teacher would think it quite irregular for this reference work to be carried on without neat little notes sent out from the Superintendent's office at stated times. Dictionary or Cyclopedia at tap of bell would surely become hateful. Any successful exercise must be a growth from the teacher's own originality and invention. How easy it is for us to crystallize;—in symmetrical forms perhaps, but once set there is no more life, we get no new ideas. Happy the teacher or worker in any department who has not felt the lines hardening around him. We all have to fight it. And how safe to say anything of this kind, for each human crystal will say, "Very true, of every crystal but myself."

After the first four years given to Primary work, let us see what can be done higher up, in the Grammar grades. Still keep in mind that our object is not simply the new facts to be gained by the easy getting of new facts. There is a Champlin's Cyclopedia of Common Things, one good-sized volume, which we will consider a necessity in this school-room. (I speak of this because I have examined it, there may be many others as suitable for the purpose.) To use it, take the reading-lesson as a basis. In a reading-book of this grade I found by a casual glance over twelve pages these words; springs, coral islands, sulphur, sponge, star-fish, grub, whalebone. They can find every one in this small Cyclopedia, written up in a simple, entertaining way. But this will be of little use if you put all the stress on exact learning of what they find, or worse still, writing it out, the thing is rapidity and ease in finding.

Now for a step further. Here is a reading-lesson on Pottery. Turning to the word in the Cyclopedia we find a nice article. Try reading it to them and then requiring them to mention from memory things that they want to know more of. They will make you out a list of twenty: porcelain, varnish, quartz, and to find them quickly in Cyclopedia and Dictionary will be excellent practice. You will get a still longer list of proper names: Dresden, Cyprus, Palissy,—of which the little book will not tell you. This list the children can take home and you will be astonished at the books they will find, and the way they will brush up the rusty knowledge of their elders. No matter if they cannot tell you all the facts they have found they must tell you the book and its author. They must not be ignorant of who wrote the Dutch Republic after having enjoyed the siege of Leyden, nor call Soule and Wheeler's Pronouncing Manual, Green's Dictionary from the color of the cover—as I knew a boy near twenty to do.

Now for some index work. We none of us use indexes as we ought. We have a reading-lesson on the Flying-Fish. We turn to the Cyclopedia, as usual, but do not find it. Turn to the good index in the back; here it is, page 239, and on page 239 we find it under fishes. Show the child still another use of indexes, which he would never think of without your aid. He read somewhere such a good story about the Black Hole of Calcutta, and he wishes he could find it again. Following former lessons, he looks for both nouns, but fails to find it. Now show him that in the index is the word Anecdotes, and a long Alphabetical list under it, and here he will find his story, page 311, under a subject where he would never have thought of looking for it, nor you either—Lungs.

Take a lesson of a different kind, the Geography lesson about Holland. Try this time to use as many books as possible. Some one will bring you Hans Brinker, and now take your own copy of the Dutch Republic, and, without giving them a chance to fear its size or sober binding, read them with every device to catch and keep the attention, the famous description of the siege of Leyden. I once read it to three little boys, aged eight, eleven, and thirteen. They gave the most breathless attention to the very end. The starving city, the sick Prince at Rotterdam sending inspiring letters to the besieged people, the piercing of the dykes; the sea, their deliverer, rising fast over fair meadows and orchards, or slowly falling as the gaunt, despairing people watched it from the castle top, all seemed none the less thrilling to these children because told in MOTLEY'S somewhat stately language. But how find this for yourselves little ones? Now the index —not volume 1st or 2nd, one index is enough. They find it easily, and feeling independent for this and any like emergency, they will join in your ridicule at the putting in of marks to find the place again.

Now Holland is not the greatest country in the world, but we will do thorough work with it because we like to do thorough work. Let them make out again a list of names used in the Cyclopedia article, and search the indexes of all the books in their possession for Spain, WILLIAM of ORANGE, dykes, PHILIP II.

Has Holland a flag? and now for the Dictionary and Cyclopedia—do not tell them a thing. What money has Holland? Call on the little stamp and coin collectors.

We have now found out about Holland from twelve or fifteen different sources. Why not keep the references in an alphabet blank-book, written up in their own crabbed hand-writing? They will enjoy this with that innate love of order and method which most children have, and they will never know that this is the beginning of Bibliography-making, unless you are foolish enough to tell them so.

These habits they are forming will be invaluable. Soon they will cease to be afraid of the largest or dryest volumes, but will know that they can take a chapter here and there as they need it. I know schools where a great deal of reading is done, but the references are found for the pupils to the very page, and the results of this system do not seem to me satisfactory. One girl of fourteen could not use her home HILDRETH, or even find the places in it, because it was a different edition and differently paged from the one used at school.

Toward the end of the grade-teaching, books of reference in United-States History, Biography, and books of Travel should be used with ease. Now they can use with profit a good library. About GEORGE III. we must learn as we did of Holland, making a list of the great men contemporary, and looking them all up. Each should give us something about GEORGE III., some new view of his times or policy. You must teach them what treasures Biography has for them. For the Reform Bill of '32, I would take a simple history, as SWINTON'S Outlines, and turning to the table of 19th-Century great men, I would cull from it those who were alive in '32. Every biography of these men is worth looking through. JOHN STUART MILL'S cool opinion we find with difficulty—no index. SIR WALTER SCOTT, we find that the dear old man died in '32, bewailing the Reform Bill as the ruin of the country; DICKENS, no mention of it, he talks too entirely of himself. You can teach your scholars to be always on the alert for the rich material to be found in Biography. They should know that they will surely find about great Englishmen in the memoirs of TICKNOR, SUMNER and PRESCOTT, men who travelled abroad, and were treated as Americans never have been since. They know that the ADAMS family were all ambassadors, and that great Europeans of their time may be noticed in their pages; the BUNSENS, always travelling and seeing great people, Miss MITFORD, FANNY KEMBLE, THE PRINCE CONSORT.—Oh, the changing, brilliant pictures we find in such pages! Is it love of learning or of gossip that makes them so attractive?

To help the young people to this wide use of books how hard we must work ourselves! If grade-teachers, we need not say we have no school work to do in the evenings. We can use this as a lever by which we ourselves rise to more scholarly attainments and habits.

Such work as this in schools must make many books and their contents somewhat familiar even to children, and remove that dread of attacking a new subject.

So extensive a use of reference books as that in the lesson on Holland, might not be best more than one or twice a term. Many teachers will think they have no time for this exercise. That will depend on the value they put on it. And we shall mistake if we ignore the child's love of variety and uncertainty. There should be days, perhaps weeks, when the teacher seems to forget this work, though it may be her dearest hobby.

It is needless to point out how the use of reference books may be extended and perfected in a High School where there are mature minds, where there is a better library and studies imperatively requiring its aid.

And so it seems to me possible to give the children a better start in using, after they go out of our schools, the best books with ease and enjoyment. How many of us were long cheated out of the heritage of ages, looking with awe and dread at the outside of books that have since become dear and familiar! How astonished were we at our first reading of the Iliad, or Prometheus Bound. "How English! we said, how easy to understand!"

What do men and women talk of at night before their fire? The gossip or cares of the day, the little things that must be talked of but should not fill the mind.

They have neither of them had any time to read, they say. The wife says she is too tired for that when she does sit down, but she always gets through the personals in the daily paper, and her husband reads the political and business parts. They are not too tired for that, because it is done without effort. Now we know that if good reading had been made easier by long habit, if they were on better terms with books, their literary resources would not be so narrow. Poor Mrs. BROWN would not have given up Bagehot in despair.

But they ought to do all this for themselves, you say, and not lean so helplessly on the plea, poor advantages. Doubtless; but one thing it seems to me we are working for is to make it easier to be good, easier to be wise, easier for the common minds to work on a higher intellectual level.

Ages ago the seed of a certain plant may, by some accident, have thrown out a new organ, a wing or a hook, and as this hook caught in the wool of beasts, or helped the seed along to more fertile districts and so proved its use, it became finally a permanent new organ in the plant. Just so we all know common minds, that by some mighty wrench of circumstance or influence have seemed to develop new faculties which we even hope may enter as a principle in descent and give their children and grand-children a better start.

It is a hopeful thought, and gives us courage, often when the reign of law seems too hard, and we feel a sickening certainty that the children we are working for will, after all, make the same mistakes their parents made, will settle back, after our influence is removed, to no better lives.

But good work may tell in ways we cannot trace. The companionship of great lives and thoughts in books must ever be elevating ; and any efforts to make this companionship easy we may consider good work.

It being decided to postpone the discussion till after the reading of the next paper upon the program, E. O. VAILE, Principal of the CLARK School of Chicago, Ill., followed immediately with his paper which was as follows:

WHAT SHOULD WE SEEK TO ACCOMPLISH IN THE READING-EXERCISE?

"Remote, unfriended, melancholy slow,
Or by the lazy Scheldt or wandering Po;
Where'er I roam, whatever relms to see,
My heart untravelled fondly turns to thee;
Stil to my Brother turns, with ceaseles pain,
And drags at each remove a lengthening chain."

Readers of BOSWELL wil recal the interesting incident which he relates connected with the first line. In a company, GOLDSMITH was once askt what he ment by the word "slow" in the opening line. Did he mean tardiness of locomotion? With a carelessnes said to be natural to the man, he answerd "yes." Dr JOHNSON happend to be present; and, in a manner quite characteristic, he broke in with this remark:—"No, Sir, you did not mean tardiness of locomotion; you ment that sluggishnes of mind which comes upon a man in solitude." I must confes it is a question in my mind whether or not the Doctor was right. But whether right or wrong, the familiar anecdote servs to point the question,—What is a good reader? Of course, when that question is answerd, we know what ends we seek in the reading exercise.

In the common enumeration of the thre fundamental R's, reading is justly put first. It is the foundation of all school work. It is the sub-soil of intelligence. In its tru sense it is the sum and substance of education. A failure in teaching reading means failure in this day in teaching everything. Reading is an all-comprehensiv term in text-book work. To develop the power and the habit of reading in the real sense is the highest function of the school; yes, it is the only function of the school. For that means the development of the understanding! All objectiv teaching is but an effort to prepare the child's intelligence for succesful reading; the succesful grasping and obtaining of thots without the intervention of objects.

The use of text-books is one of the main objects of school training. But what ar all your text-books worth, and the memorizing of them, without a full and generous power of understanding them? But how far apart ar the extreme acts and processes which this word reading covers! It is all reading, from the feebl efforts of the littl child to the work of the poet or filosofer. Everything is cald reading that involvs the calling of words without reference to the comprehension, or amount of mental activity exerted. What degree, or, in homeopathic language, what potency, of this acquirement should be aimd at in our schools, is a question seldom discust. Probably it is understood that we should aim to do the best we can. But this does not help us at all to any clearer conception of what good reading is. It does seem idl to ask what we really hav in mind when we speak of teaching a child to read. And yet for the great mas of teachers, it is an exceedingly-pertinent question. They fail to recognize the fact that the word reading is made to do doubl duty; that it is a term applied to two distinct arts. Reading, in one sense, is the art of receiving impressions; of comprehending another person's thot. We speak of reading a person's character, of reading a piece of scripture, a drawing, or a picture. When applied to books it means the art of getting ideas from the printed page; of grasping another's thot as conveyd by type or pen. In another sense, reading is one of the arts of expression; a means of conveying thot or sentiment from one soul to another, the same as music, or sculpture, or painting. In this last sense reading is a constituent of language; it is the means of giving to the writer, in the expression of his mind, all the benefits of a present, living soul. For convenience the first of these may be cald mental or mind reading, that is the reading or comprehending of another's mind as he projects it upon the page. The other art may be cald oral reading, that is the expression by means of the voice of what we hav receivd from an author's printed words.

It is tru that these two arts ar closely related: but the possession of either power does not necessarily indicate the possession of the other power in an equal extent. We hav all known ministers who, from their intellectual capacity, we wer bound to believ had considerabl ability as mental readers, but who, by the reading of their hymns and sermons gave us excruciating evidence of their lack of skil in expressing their own or another's thots orally. And we hav all known children who, wel drilled in matters of articulation and utterance, past for "fine readers" as the frase goes, but who, by a littl adroit questioning, hav betrayd the fact that they possest a very inadequate, if not erroneous, conception of what they red.

In practice, whatever it might be in theory, it is generally mere oral reading that teachers hav in view when at work in the school-room. It is assumed that the practice of reading can hav no primary object other than to impart elocutionary skil; to cultivate facility and power of oral expression. The universal question is not, Do our pupils understand what they read? but How distinctly and fluently can they call off the words? They ar drild daily from six to sixteen, and yet they cannot *read.* They pas over that which to them is intelligibl and that which is not intelligibl alike, without the least discrimination. Words, words ar all they read.

Professors of elocution and special teachers of reading ar in high repute, and their services in demand, but they do not impart the power we need. In fact they seem to think we hav no need except need of their tricks. It is a serious question if the whole guild, with few exceptions, ought not to be indicted as a public nuisance. There hav been instances in teachers' institutes in which they hav certainly done more harm than good. They magnify mere trifles of form and manner beyond all reason. They do not seem evn to suspect that mental culture, the power to grasp and appreciate another's thot must exist as the foundation of all genuin teaching in the art of elocution. As a consequence the innocent teacher goes back to his school-room fully imbued with the idea that to teach reading in the most approved and succesful way his boys and girls must be traind to imitate the tricks and graces, the noise and bluster, of the institute elocutionist. The teacher is more imprest than ever with the idea that oral reading is the high and the important end, and that in the matter of reading he has nothing else to think of.

It is not the purpose of this paper to depreciate the valu of a weltraind voice and a good delivery. But it is its purpose, while conceding the valu and beauty of this accomplishment, to assert that there is a power which our children need that is of infinitly greater importance to them, but which is entirely neglected in our school training. Within the proper and legitimate sfere of ordinary school work, the paramount object of the reading-exercise should be to develop the power of obtaining from the printed page, and by means of the eye, emotions and ideas clearly and quickly. All other work in reading should be strictly subordinate to this.

A person who has not givn considerabl thot to this matter cannot realize how completely our schools fail in this respect. But the fact is beginning to impress itself. It has been alluded to on several occasions in papers read before this body. The Superintendent of a thriving Ohio town gave this as an illustration of his experience. The senior clas of his high school came into his hands for the study of Chemistry in February;—only five months before their graduation, and after at least ten years of faithful instruction in a set of first-clas graded schools. He put into their hands what he considerd a good book;—not one however on the regulation text-book plan with crystallized statements and formulas. It was simpl, and the design was to hav it red and summarized. After a few weeks he found that no substantial hedway had been made. At first the troubl was charged to the book; and then to want of effort on the part of pupils. But these did not prove satisfactory solutions of the difficulty. At last, to use his own words, he became convinced that his clas did not know how to read. They could memorize and recite the words of the book when the amount to be committed was not too great; but they could not grasp and condense the thots of a lesson. He had to take hold and spend as much time in teaching them to read as in teaching them chemistry.

The same experience was related by an enterprising teacher of history who had attempted to discard the rote-method of recitation.

It has not been many days since the principal of a city high school used substantially this language:—"The principals of our grammar schools would be offended if I should say it to their faces; but I must say I am thoroly disgusted with the pupils we get. They don't know how to read. They not only do not comprehend the language of their books, but they do not know that they do not comprehend it."

A Superintendent of schools in a large town said that when a pupil he used to recite HOOD's "Faithless NELLIE GRAY," and he receivd considerable prais from various teachers. But he declared it was a fact that he never had a suspicion that there was any wit or doubl meaning about it, until after he began to teach school himself.

If you ever take part in institute work, at your next opportunity select, for instance, LONGFELLOW's "Psalm of Life," or "The Brook," by TENNYSON, and hold your teachers right down to a full and clear exposition of each line and thot, and se what you get from them. It has not been many weeks since a bright set of country teachers spent some time on a paragraf or two of "The Town Pump," by HAWTHORNE. At the conclusion, they exprest their surprise at how littl they had seen in it after all the times they had red it. They had been simply surface readers.

In a high-school clas of forty pupils fourteen years of age or more, a girl not below the average of her clas understood that a forced march was accomplisht when a body of soldiers by some means, unknown to her, was forced or pusht right thru the enemy's army. A boy, a voracious reader (?) of history, really thot that when "soldiers slept on their arms," they stood up leaning against their muskets and thus slept.

Many of you recollect the incident related in the address of the President of this Department last year. In a "good school," he found a clas that supposed there wer thre buckets in the well in which "The Old Oaken Bucket" hung, and that the emblem of truth with which one of them overflowed was the *eagle.*

Now these ar not sporadic cases of obtuse intellects or of inferior teaching. Pages might be filld with similar illustrations coming from the best products of our schools. And I am sure that every observing teacher and superintendent can find in his own experience ampl evidence that we ar sadly missing the mark in our teaching of reading.

Hence the general answer to the question, "What should we seek to accomplish in the Reading Exercise," is this:—We should seek, above all things els, to make our pupils quick and vigorous in the comprehending and appreciating what they read. We should train them so that in their reading they shal deal with ideas and not with words simply. The reading lesson ought to be a thot-tester and a thot-producer. It should mean mental activity and energy; and not mere passivnes or receptivity.

It may be profitabl to spend a moment in considering how this evil originates; how it comes that our children seldom acquire the power to do anything but read words. It begins in the primary school, with the first efforts at lerning to read. From the first the greatest part of the labor is spent in lerning to recognize certain printed words as representativ of certain spoken words. So long as the child encounters no word of which he has not the spokn form and the clear idea in mind before he sees the printed form, there should be no troubl. But this condition does not long exist. He does not go far before the words and frases of his book begin to diverge from his list of distinctly-understood vocal words and frases. Now comes mischief. Heretofore he has had the idea before he grappld with the printed word. But now the circumstances are reverst. With his mind vacant of any corresponding ideas, he begins to work out or memorize the vocal form of new words. Previously he has possest the idea before he lernd the word. Now he begins to get words before he has the ideas. Before, the printed word was to him the means to an end, the instrument of bringing into his consciousnes the idea. But now, having no idea to be brought into consciousnes, the printed word becomes an end in itself. When he has lernd the word, lacking the development and mental power that tels him he possesses no idea back of it or as the foundation of if, he thinks he has consummated the complete and perfect act of reading. Here his effort stops. Here the habit begins of seeing nothing, of looking for nothing, but words on the printed page. The audibl, the obtrusiv part, becomes, in the teacher's mind, the essential part; while the vital, animating step, becaus it is hiddn, is lost sight of, or takn for granted. There is a no more fatal or common error made in our school-rooms than the assumption that every sentence pronounced leavs its distinct and proper counterpart in the mind. Five years ago this thot was forcibly presented to this Department by Sup't HARRINGTON. I cannot do better than quote a sentence or two from him. Speaking of the impotency in the comprehension and use of language which is so observabl in our schools, he says, "it has resulted from an insane dependence for both the development of thot and the communication of intelligence directly upon words, as tho, when we giv a child new words, we furnish him with new ideas. There lies the grand mistake that pervades American public-school work—and a greater is not possibl, in educational affairs nor one more pregnant with injury and los. And yet the teaching in the majority of our schools is the teaching of words alone, irrespectiv of ideas."

To make this paper more practically useful, let us ask a littl in detail what teachers can do and ought to do to cultivate in their pupils the habit of reading with the faculties all arousd, and of getting at the real thought.

1. One important thing is to make all the reading as objectiv as possibl:—to giv to every sentence, if it can be done, an independent explanation or illustration. In the primary classes especially every picture closely examined by pupils and compared with the text accompanying. Let every statement be investigated. As much as can be, let the pupil's experience be cald upon to confirm or correct the statements of the lesson.

2. Of course the meaning of individual words must be attended to. But here two mistakes ar often made. There ar large systems of schools in

which great stres is laid upon the use of the littl dictionary by pupils in the 3rd and 4th Readers. It seems to me this is a great evil. There ar very few words that a child at that stage needs to look for which ar adequately explaind for him in the elementary dictionary. Generally he finds a synonym which he is farther from understanding than the original word, or which gives him only a partial conception. Hence he is confirmd in the evil habit of studying nothing but words.

The other mistake is in presuming that when the individual words ar understood the sentence as a whole is understood. This is far from being the case. In fact, where the language is simplest the teacher who would make sure that the ideas ar clear must hav the greatest watchfulnes and skil. The lines quoted from the beginning of "The Traveller" wel illustrate this. In the first line what idea should be attacht to the word "slow?" and how many of our high-school pupils studying literature understand this sentence, simpl as it is: "My heart untravelled drags at each remove a lengthening chain."

3. The wise teacher wil aim at the development of the power of association. This is a faculty in which children differ greatly; but proper training wil hav a great effect upon its rediness. Boys and girls can be taught to levy quickly upon their own observation and experience when another's ideas ar presented. But they must be stimulated to it until the mind becomes fixt in the habit.

4. The power of mental perception, of discovering the relation between ideas, is, of course, one of the chief objects to be aimd at in all our work. The great danger, as before explaind, is that pupils shal only perceiv the relation between words, and think that that is all. With the ordinary matter in text-books it seems very esy for teachers to be misled in this respect. At least it is a rare thing to find a teacher fully arousd to the danger of being misled. The sober sentences of geografy, or reader, or history bring no bright gleam to the countenance or flash to the eye, as infallibl signs that the thots ar appreciated. Those sentences that ar understood and those that ar not, ar red alike with the same expression, or want of expression. It would be an advantage, as presenting most evident proof of comprehension or want of comprehension, if more use could be made in the school-room of puns, and jokes, and riddls, and wit generally. They are wonderful quickeners of thot, as wel as test-gauges, to show its presence or absence.

5. It seems superfluous to say that in the reading exercise we ought to aim at the strengthening of the power of attention. But concentration of thot is a thing littl understood in our school-rooms. Memorizing, by means of drilling and humdrum repetition, takes its place. Our children do not advance; they simply mark time. They know nothing about quality of effort. They can appreciate exertion only in bulk; not at all as to intensity. To them simple reading furnishes no hold upon the matter read. I fear it is not a rare experience for many of us to find ourselvs at the bottom of a page that we hav red, and yet unconscious of its contents. The fysical man seems to hav done his part perfectly; but the mind was employed upon other errands. Years ar wasted before many persons realize that most of their reading is performd with les than one-

half the mind; without real mental activity. It is rather a discovery when we find what may be acomplisht by concentration of mind; when we feel that attention is not passivity, but energy. It is a fortunate day for us when this awakening comes, and we begin the ernest endeavor to hold our roving mind stedily to its work.

6. But attention itself has its foundations which we must se to. We ar often told that we must excite curiosity in order to secure attention. This is a good rule as far as it goes. For the primary teacher curiosity is the only reliance. But for teachers in the upper grades, it will not do to depend upon curiosity. Something more stabl is needed to make a strong mind. Back of all must stand the wil, with ability and disposition to use it.

M. Marcel says, "The great secret of education lies in exciting and directing the wil." It is the omnipotence of wil only that insures self-disciplin and scholarship. With the wil in action, the boy or girl wil bring back the wandering attention, like a truant boy to school. When the pupil's wil thus once gains the mastery, you wil find lessons prepared in minutes which took hours before. In a most sympathetic passage upon the innumerabl distractions that beset us, when we first set out to master our attention, Sir William Hamilton closes thus: "But if we ar vigorous enough to pursu our course in spite of obstacls, every step as we advance will be found esier; the mind becomes more animated and energetic; the distractions gradually diminish; the attention is more exclusivly concentrated upon its object; the kindred ideas flow with greater fredom and abundance. All that is produced in this state of mind bears the stamp of excellence and perfection."

It is quite obvious that as our schools ar generally organized, the teacher has but littl opportunity to be of substantial service to his pupil in fighting for this self-mastery. In fact we can hardly conceiv a set of surrounding conditions more hostil to the pupil engaged in an ernest struggl to gain control of his attention, than his situation in an ordinary school-room. But stil it is of the utmost importance that we should seek to do all in our power to assist him in this, one of the supreme stuggls of his life.

7. But leaving the metafysics of the matter, there remains one important remark yet to make in connection with this full mental reading. The demand would be unreasonabl that our teaching should give to our pupils the power to understand all that they read. But it is not only a reasonabl demand, but it is a standard to which every teacher ought to attain or else feel thoroly guilty, that his training should giv his pupils the power to make it their habit, to discriminate quickly between what they understand and what they do not understand; that it should develop that kind of attention which notifies us at once when we fail to get a clear coherent idea from what we read. Our failure here is one of the saddest features connected with the subject of reading, and, indeed, with the whole matter of common school education. From the lowest grades to the highest, our children read, lern to recite, not only without comprehending, but without realizing in the slightest degree their want of comprehension. This is a shame, and there can be no defence for it.

From everything that he reads or lerns, the child can, and should get, not necessarily a correct idea, but an idea intelligibl and coherent according to his powers: or else he should be perfectly conscious that he gets no such idea.

It has been said on this platform that reading is a means and not an end. To that I say, "Yes and No." If you mean the mere mechanical part, the simpl ability to recognize the symbols of thot, I say yes, over and over again. But if you mean by reading the full comprehension of that, the complete activity of the mind and soul when tracing the printed line, then I say reading is an end, so far as the teacher is cernd, and I might say, the highest end he can hav in view. For then it means, thinking the thots, and feeling the emotions that li in an unseen world behind the printed page, and which can only be realized by the "vision of faculty divine."

So far I hav ment to include in the term Reading-Exercise, every exercise or recitation, no matter in what subject that involvs any reading, oral or mental. I hav lookt upon reading as the foundation, as the essence of study, and hav said as a first answer to the question, What should we seek to accomplish in the Reading-Exercise? that we should seek to train our pupils to go beneath words and get at ideas,—to read with all their mental faculties fully awake, and drawing a distinct conscious line of separation between what they understand and what they do not understand.

But confining attention to the oral exercise in reading, we should seek to produce clear, plesant voices, and a natural, conversational manner of emphasis and inflection. I do not think that in ordinary clas dril we should aim at anything like dramatic or oratorical effects. But it is not necessary for me to enlarge upon this fase of the matter. I have done enough if I hav exprest the strong conviction that there is no comparison to be made between the reading which aims habitually and at any expense of time and labor, at the thot and that ordinary school reading which puts its greatest effort upon articulation, tone, emphasis and inflection. One is a necessity, the other is an accomplishment. If we can make good oral readers at the same time we make good mental readers, all wel and good. But if we secure only one result, let us attend faithfully to the intellectual part, leaving the elocutionary part to take care of itself, as I believ it wil.

The discussion of these two papers was opened by D: N. CAMP, of New Britain, Conn., who urged that children be so taught that they would love to read out of school. He considered the English schools superior to ours, because they never use a book till the children know how to read, and then they can understand and appreciate its value. ELIHU BURRITT was too poor to own a book when he first went to school, and probably his thirst for knowledge was due in part to this very poverty.

Miss ANNA BARIGHT, of Boston, Principal of a School of Elocution and Expression, quoted EMERSON's saying:—" Think the thought, and the expression will take care of itself," and did not believe it true, because the intensity of the intellectual force is spent somewhat in the first friction of expression. The spoken words being conventional symbolisms of ideas, are of no value whatever, except as they convey certain thoughts to the listening mind. The human voice is capable of expressing almost every shade of emotion, and we should seek to bring into harmony the idea and the symbol in expression. Only so long as words mean something will you give the eye and ear. The great difficulty lies with our understanding of the word expression. Impression is of no use unless we have it in expression. Abstract thought is of no use to me or to you unless we put it into some form. The thing to be accomplished in any school is expression.

Mr. Zalmon Richards, of Washington, said: "I have been delighted with the papers read this afternoon. You say we should begin to train in the Primary Schools. Now when in the Primary School shall we begin? Begin with the first word the child utters, the first thought which the child expresses. The trouble originates with lack of understanding of the words which they read. The thought or idea should be impressed upon the child's mind first. Never call upon the child to read a word of which he has not an idea in his mind. Let every idea from the beginning be accompanied by its word-signs, and then words will mean something to the child. Nine-tenths of the reading in our public schools is sound-reading, and not sense-reading."

Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, of Cleveland, Ohio, said:

As I have been listening to this discussion the thought has arisen in my mind, Why do we have oral-reading at all? We hear much said about sense-reading and word-reading, about mechanical reading and intellectual reading, and the point is well made that our greatest need is to give attention to sense-reading. But let us take care that we go not too far in this direction, and miss the very thing we aim at.

Again I ask, Why do we have oral-reading at all? Why do we not have each child read silently his paragraph, and then stand up and tell what it means? We all know that this is a most excellent exercise, and one in which children delight; but are any of us ready to say that this is sufficient for the reading-exercise?

And again, if we go into a school-room and hear a class read, even though they give good inflections, have clear enunciation, and round, smooth voices that can be heard, and yet mispronounce some words and omit others, are we ready to say that this is good reading?

There are two kinds of actors,—one who, never losing consciousness of his own individuality, plays upon his audience through the power of his art alone; the other loses himself completely in the part he plays. I once heard a gentleman say, in speaking of Joe Jefferson, that he wondered how the man could tell which was Jefferson and which Rip Van Winkle. How these two kinds of actors affect their hearers we all know, and which is the gainer by the part he plays we can easily surmise. And we should lay these lessons to heart, and give the children pure things to read, and so instruct them that they shall, for the time, *be* the thing they read.

Then not only will thought control expression, but the child will be ennobled and enriched by experience of the thought which has for a time dominated his mind.

A long-standing trouble in teaching reading is, that we burden the reading exercise with many things which do not belong to it. There should be a divorce between elocutionary training and the reading-exercise. And not this only, for there is still much pertaining to the reading-lesson which should be preparatory to the reading-exercise. There should be a rapid recognition of the forms of all new words, and of the meanings of new words as they stand in various relations in various sentences. This should be blackboard work. There should be training in the correct pronunciation of all new words, and a studying of the reading-lesson before the lesson is read aloud by any one. Thus prepared, and with his organs trained and his attention directed to the importance of inflection, emphasis, etc., by the *separate* exercise of elocutionary training, the child should find the reading exercise a test of his power to use his organs to express in his own manner the thought which his mind has conceived.

Nowhere, and under no circumstances, can we afford to ignore expression, for expression is thought in blossom ; but within proper limits we must permit to each child his own expression. If we can do this, we shall no longer have each child in the class reading a paragraph in identically the same way that every other child reads it, and all exactly like the teacher, but each child will essay to express in his own way his own conception of the meaning of the paragraph."

Here the President reminding the audience that the time was passing and the hour was late, ruled that succeeding speakers must confine themselves to three minute speeches.

Miss BARIGHT rose to insist that something more was necessary for both child and adult than the perfect comprehension of the thought, and that was elocutionary training, and cited as illustrating her point, the fact that so many of our greatest and wisest men could not read their own papers with expression.

Dr. HENKLE, of Ohio, was perfectly astonished that the world had got along as well as it has without understanding the meaning of the words better, and added that he had rarely known an elecutionist who was able to express his own thoughts well.

Dr. HANCOCK, of Ohio, said that Dr. HENKLE came near making all of his speech. The truth is that the child may get the meaning for himself, and then fail to convey that meaning to others. When you teach the children to read, give them the elocutionary part, and give it first. From the beginning it is the inspiration which comes from artistic work which lifts them.

J. C. GILCHRIST, of the Iowa Normal School, quoted WENDELL PHILLIPS to the effect that he never went before an audience unless he had something to say, and then he said it.

Col. PARKER, of Boston, said : "I am a great lover of elocution, though I cannot do it myself, but I believe that thought will control expression if you will only take down the bars.

Mrs. Rickoff asked for a moment in which to say that she did not wish to be understood as saying that all children should read alike, but on the contrary that as they were different in themselves, so their reading would differ if taught to read naturally.

Mrs. M. A. Stone, of Connecticut, was glad to have heard the papers and the discussion of such important subjects, and asked Miss Hinman at what age she would put the dictionary in the hands of the child.

Miss Hinman replied that it depended upon the brightness of the child, but would not give it such books before the child was seven years of age.

Mr. Vaile closed the discussion by defending his illustrations, which had been attacked several times, and insisting that children too often did not understand what they read, and thought that Mrs. Rickoff had struck the keynote in saying that all children could not and should not read alike. Teach them by placing the book before them without any preparation and then ask them to read, and the children will read it well.

Miss Ellen Hyde, Principal of the Framingham Normal School, Mass., then read a paper entitled

HOW CAN CHARACTER BE SYMMETRICALLY DEVELOPED.

Fellow-teachers, it is with mingled pleasure and diffidence that I attempt to say anything to you—(many of you so much older and more experienced than I,) on this transcendent question, a question which seems to me infinitely more important than any other which can occupy the attention of the present age, the answer to which will more than anything else, affect the homes and the society of the future, and the destiny of the nation.

The time is, happily, past when symmetrical character was considered a sort of rare exotic which could not flourish in the rude air of the work-a-day world, but must be nurtured in seclusion. A purer faith has taught us that in order to develop such a character

"We need not bid for cloistered cell
Our neighbor and our work farewell;"

that Christ was walking the path we ought to walk when he mingled with harlots and publicans, when he trod the dusty highways of Judea on missions of mercy, and when he died between the thieves; and practical experience joins with religious faith to teach us that such character can be developed only by following in his steps through the stress and tumult of a busy world.

So in the school-room, which is an epitome of the world around it, symmetrical character must be developed, if at all, in the daily study and the daily play, in the mutual relations of school-fellows, and of pupils and teacher, through all the routine of school life, which seems to have no time for it, but which is yet the God-appointed and the only opportunity for it. I repeat that the daily routine of duty is the only opportunity given us for the development of character, and any little addenda of moral lessons, to days whose ordinary work has ignored the great question of right and wrong, will be simply a waste of time. This is a self-evident proposition, for what is character? It is the aggregate of our intellectual and moral habits; and a habit is a strong tendency to certain forms of activity and a facility in them acquired by frequent repetition. So we see that the constant iteration of school, in which the children spend half their waking hours for five days in seven, must have a strong influence in character building. Yet the number of papers appointed for this Association which bear directly on this subject, and the amount of attention it is receiving in other quarters, would seem to indicate that the results obtained thus far in our schools have not been altogether satisfactory. Why have we, with such riches of opportunity, accomplished such meagre results? I believe it is because we have been working on wrong principles. Do not our schools of this 19th century, though so changed in details still bear in some of their fundamental ideas the impress of the monasticism in which they had their origin? The tyranny of Greek and Latin, established at the revival of learning when they were the only vehicles of knowledge, is still not entirely broken! The name grammar school, and the superstitious reverence for grammar as a branch of study, dates back to the time when grammar was all there was to study:—and the separation of the sexes in school, and the reign of authority, as opposed to rational liberty, are relics of mediæval times. This reign of authority in our schools is, I believe, the great hindrance there to the development of character. Authority is a grand and necessary element in human society, but its forte, surely, is not education. Authority deals with what is purely external; it can oblige to certain forms of physical activity, or it can impose physical restraints; the spiritual nature it cannot reach; it cannot influence thought or feeling or belief, even in a child. The spiritual nature is called into activity, and so led to form habits, which constitute character, only by motives addressed to reason, sensibility, and conscience; and symmetrical character can be developed only by the constant presentation of the highest motives. The atmosphere of our schools, even to-day (with a few beautiful exceptions) is an atmosphere of authority. The child, as he enters the door, is met by rules—"you must not whisper,"—"you must not leave your seat,"—"you must not turn your head,"—"you must not look out of the windows,"—"you must not drop your book or your pencil,"—"you must not move except at the stroke of the bell and in concert with all the other little victims of this miserable tyranny,"—"you must learn just as much as, and in just the same time that every other child does;—and if you don't do all this you'll be marked." This is not an exaggerated picture of the antiquated and abominable system which reigns in (I believe) the majority of our schools, and those schools are most admired in which it is most complete and most automatic. What kind and degree of development of character is to be gained by such a system? Just as much as the child gets by hanging his hat on its peg in the morning—What he shall do and how he shall do it is decided by another; there is no balancing of motives, no calling up of his lower nature before the tribunal of reason and conscience; it is the ruling of the child's physical activity by the will of the teacher. The most plausible argument in favor of this system is, that it gives children habits of order. It would appear to. It does give them an automatic regularity in just those exercises in which they are drilled, but it instils no principle of order, and I have, through a series of years, searched in vain to find a child who was made more orderly at home by such a drill in school. It does not reach character. How can it? But this government by authority not only fails to do what is desired, it seems to me to have positively vicious results. Sensitive and nervous children are kept by it in a state of morbid anxiety, which is a serious hindrance to intellectual progress, while the opposite class are made into little martinets, to take as much satisfaction in their precision of movement as if it were a high moral achievement. And since to enforce these arbitrary rules, punishment is often necessary as much as for moral wrong, the tendency of them is to obscure the children's moral sense.

The Marking-System is another evil, universally prevalent, which I believe to be a great hindrance to development of character. It is a natural, though a modern, outgrowth of Authority of Schools. Its inevitable tendency is to substitute marks for morals—high per cents for real growth in knowledge and excellence--and thus it perverts and degrades character. So my first answer to the question which you have given me, is, we can develop character by the abolition of arbitrary authority, with its rules and per cents, and the introduction in its stead of rational liberty. Do not misunderstand me. It is not license which I desire, but liberty. Let the children be subject in school to the same law (and no other) which should govern them, and every one, out of school—the law of right and courtesy. The place where children spend half their waking hours, should be a place of free and joyous activity—beautiful and attractive, as nearly like a good home as possible. Let us not meet them at the threshold with arbitrary restrictions, but, when there is need for it, explain to them that where there are so many together any unnecessary noise or disorder is an interference with the rights of others, and therefore wrong. Let us substitute for the dictum of command the question "Is it right." Let us be patient with childish thoughtlessnes, and careful to punish only moral wrong. The teacher's office in school government, as I understand it, is not that of a dictator but of a guide. It is our duty and privilege to present to our pupils, in all the daily routine of school, right motives for right conduct, and thus to keep their moral nature in constant exercise. In place of command let the child hear: "This course which you want to pursue is unwise and wrong, it seems attractive now, but you will be sorry for it by and by"—"This course which is distasteful now, is wise and right; therefore you ought to pursue it." If such a presentation is not enough, and we see that inclination is going to conquer conscience, there is the next appeal to the approbation of those he loves and desires to please; and as a final resort the sorrowful statement of fact—(not a threat)—"if you do what is wrong it will be my duty to punish you;" and punishment, when deserved, must be as certain as the law of gravitation. With very young children, of course, and with older ones who have been neglected, the lower motives will, at first, be most influential, but the wise guide can constantly lure them upward, and patient continuance in well-doing will sooner or later bring its reward, in the perceptible growth of the pupils in susceptibility to the highest motives; and there will gradually grow up in the school an unwritten constitution, founded on the same principles of equity and kindness which the child must learn to obey in the larger world outside. If the intellectual teaching of the school is philosophical and truthful, the children will not often need stimulants to study,—their work will be their pleasure—and by this constant exercise of reason and conscience on the little affairs of their little lives—their relations to their mates and to their teacher, and the few points in which they touch the public welfare—these little unreasoning, selfish animals may be transformed into reasonable, self-controlled, conscientious, men and women.

This government by freedom in school is at the beginning much more difficult than government by authority because it requires the constant active exercise in the teacher of all the virtues he wishes to develop in the pupil, and allows on the part of the pupils such manifestations of waywardness as would be effectively repressed by the other plan. But, as it produces development, it is progressive, grows continually easier, and gives, finally, to the faithful teacher such frequent surprises of symmetry and strength and sweetness of character in his pupils as surely no other earthly joy can equal. That such a system of school government is adapted to develop character it seems to me impossible to doubt. Is there any one who questions its feasibility? To such my reply is: It is in operation to-day in a sufficient number, and a sufficient variety, of schools, to prove that it is entirely practicable as well as most excellent.

Rational liberty is the sine-qua-non in a school where symmetry of character is to grow, but there are other elements which are essential to the atmosphere of such a school; one of these is truth. By truth I do not mean truth-speaking alone; that is the beginning of truthfulness—the elementary lesson which the child learns first; but pitiful indeed is that mature mind whose only idea of truthfulness is—not telling lies. Truthfulness is *living to the truth* in every act, thought, and feeling; joyful conformity to God's thought in every fiber of our being; and such truthfulness as this the child must be trained to, by every exercise and every influence, in the school which is to develop symmetry of character. Such truthfulness will banish from our schools all insincerity of purpose, all superficialness, and all shams; it will lead teachers and pupils to keep constantly in mind the true aim of their work, and to do it honestly and thoroughly. It will transform teachers from slaves of Committees or parents or a false public opinion into Servants of God—intrusted by Him with the highest earthly work—the training of immortal souls—It will banish show lessons for committees and visitors, and will utilize the time now wasted in preparing for useless (even though honest) exhibition days, in what is the true work of the school—progress in knowledge and goodness. It will banish those lying registers, so common now, which report a child as present who comes only to answer to his name and is absent during the whole session. It will banish all customs which give temptation to untruthfulness—like reporting and the monitor system, and all those, as well, which are the expression of a lack of confidence in the children on the part of the teacher. The law treats a man as innocent till he is proved guilty, in many of our schools the pupils are all from the outset treated as guilty; it would be simply a miracle if some of them did not speedily become so.

As truthfulness will free the teachers from time-serving motives, so it will lead them to keep before their pupils the highest standard of judgment, and the weak and wicked questions—"How will that look"? "What will people think of you"? "What will people say"?—so belittling to intellect, so degrading to character will cease to be heard in our schools, and in their place will come constant reference to the eternal judgment of God in the question—"Is it right?" It is one of our national boasts that we are governed by public opinion, and happy is it for us that public opinion is so often on the side of right;—but woe to the nation where public opinion is made the standard of right, and woe to the child whose character is moulded on the question, "What will people say?" Truthfulness involves thoroughness—That teacher whose school-house stood on the bank of the Connecticut River and whose class recited glibly the book description of the Connecticut, yet when asked if they had ever seen it, said, "No," was giving those children effective tarining in superficialness and lying. Careless and dishonest work makes shifts and shams of all descriptions, with all the loss of time and property and life that they entail, are the natural sequence of that school training which accepts words without ideas, and smooth recitations behind which there is no thought, and reckons its progress by the number of pages gone over rather than by real growth in knowledge and power.

Once more—Truthfulness will banish from our schools those teachers who try to build up a sham dignity on the supposition of universal knowledge and infallible wisdom, and will put into their places those who are ready when truth requires it, to say to their pupils—"I do not know," "I was mistaken," or "I beg your pardon." Out of such an atmosphere of truth in schools as I have tried to describe, we may confidently expect will grow that patience in investigation, that deliberation in judgment, that readiness to relinquish, on just occasions, preconceived opinions, which characterize what we call the scientific mind and which are the prerequisites of all intellectual progress, as well as that persistence and accuracy which make good workmen in all departments of labor. Out of them, too, we may expect business men above reproach, statesmen "who never sell the truth to serve the hour, nor palter with eternal God for power," and clear-headed, large-hearted women whose very living is social purification and healing. To develop symmetrical character all our school work in principle and in details, and the very atmosphere of the school must be truthful.

In order to symmetrical development of character in schools there must be in them natural relations between the sexes, and purity. Purity is the reverent acceptance of God's thoughts in our creation as male and female. This duality of our nature, out of which grow all the sweet relations of the family, the amenities of home, the beauties and benefits of society, and which, perverted, is the most fruitful source of human misery, makes itself felt very early in life in its lower manifestations; is an important factor in character; and as much as any other needs careful training in schools.

Yet the attitude of our schools to-day toward this important part of their work bears the unmistakable impress of those mediæval times when education was confined to men and associated with monastic discipline, and women were carefully secluded in castles and convents, to preserve them from the brutality which such ignorance engendered. Even the purer Christianity and broader education of to-day which have done so much for us, have as yet failed to bring the sexes together in study. Little boys and girls are allowed to play together; young men and young women are allowed to walk, ride, drive, row, swim, and dance together at all hours of the day and night, but they must not study together. In that part of their lives which gives the best opportunity for a knowledge of each other as rational and moral beings, they are separated. This folly is most apparent in the higher education, but it begins in the lower schools, where, in large towns, hundreds of boys are massed together in one set of school-houses and hundreds of girls in another, or where in the smaller towns poverty necessitates the putting them together, the boys are all seated on one side of the room and the girls on the other, and where it is often made a disgraceful punishment for a child to be seated beside one of the other sex. Thus, aided by false home training, the highest mysteries of their physical nature are forced prematurely upon the children's attention, their natural innocence is perverted to unnatural self-consciousness, and that which should dawn upon them as a high and sacred truth is pervaded from the first with falsehood. What wonder that our schools are full of impurity! that from Maine to California our school-houses and their out-buildings are defaced by the symbols of impure thoughts and the indications of impure manners—a sort of universal language of vice, meaningless to many grown people, but full of meaning, alas! to all the children! What wonder that in many of our schools is to be found vice so much more mature, that when we remember that here are being formed the characters which are to make the homes and the society of the future, the thought is smiply appalling.

This is a delicate subject, fellow-teachers, but it is one which we above all others, (except fathers and mothers,) have need to study. We cannot neglect it and be innocent. We must understand this terrible social disease in its symptoms and its tendencies, and undertake, earnestly and hopefully to eradicate its beginnings from the schools. But how, out of such depraved tendencies as these are we to develop symmetrical character? In the first place, we must remember that all this precocious impurity is but the perversion of natural, God-given instincts, which rightly educated and governed, form one of the strongest elements of noble character and are the source of much that is highest and best in human life; and that their perversion is largely due to the natural curiosity of children about a subject of which they are kept in unnatural ignorance, and so we must accept the situation, not as an occasion for horror and despair, but as a call to duty. Our first step must be,—where it is necessary—to purify the school buildings—to wipe out from every nook and corner the symbols of impurity, and make all the surroundings of the children such as shall promote decency of manners and cleanliness of mind. We must carefully preserve by constant watchfulness those children who are yet innocent from the contamination of the others. We must talk plainly and earnestly with those who need it, explaining to them as far as they can understand it, the evil effects of impurity, on their minds and bodies, and the sure destruction it will bring if persevered in. In this way, and by eternal vigilance in school and out of school and by seeking the aid of parents when necessary, we may hope to eradicate impurity from our schools. We must guard against its initiation by seating the boys and girls in classes side by side, and never even by implication leading them to regard their relations to each other as different from those of brothers and sisters in a family. Out of these more natural associations will grow greater modesty and dignity on the part of the girls, increase of gentleness and justice in the boys—the boys will be made more manly, the girls more womanly. And when, from sitting side by side, as children in the common schools, the young men and young women go on through the higher education still side by side, thus gaining a knowledge of each other as rational and moral beings, what increase of mutual respect and helpfulness, what diminution of rash and ill-assorted marriages, what elevation of character in both men and women, what gain in social purity may we not expect as the result!

It is evident that in schools where there is to be such freedom, truth, and purity as shall develop symmetrical character, there must be *good teachers*, and one of the first effects of a determined effort on the part of a committee or superintendent to obtain such a state of things would be a change of teachers in many of the schools.

Our schools are too largely filled with mere *school keepers*. Particularly in the small country districts and the great cities like New York and Philadelphia, political influence or petty local power puts into them, instead of the strong, cultured christian men and women who ought to be there (and who can be found when there is a demand for them) a host of immature, uncultured, thoughtless, or even careless, young persons (or keeps there the superannuated old ones) who are utterly incompetent to make them anything more than lifeless, hopeless lesson-mills. There is the young man, who is working his way through college, or the young college graduate who needs a stepping-stone to his profession; there, too, are the crowd of young women, some of whom want more pocket-money than their fathers can give them, and some of whom think keeping school a more genteel and easy way of earning their living than housework, or shopwork, or standing behind a counter. Some of them are very estimable young persons if in the right place. But how can a blushing young girl in her teens deal with the great question of impurity? How can a young person of either sex, just out of school, who has, as yet, hardly begun to ask Pilate's question—the great question which comes sooner or later to us all—" What is truth "? how can such a young person teach children to live to the truth? How can a young teacher, but a step in advance of his pupils in culture or character, give to the school that large and natural freedom in which alone symmetrical and individual character can grow? No, it is hopeless to look for development of character in schools till we have in them teachers of high character—men and women so humbly conscious of their own personal power, that it will be impossible for them to be either the tyrants of the pupils or the slaves of the Committee.

I believe necessity keeps many good teachers in towns where the Committee restricts them in methods of government; but a teacher who is subjected to the indignity of being forbidden to keep a child more than a specified time after school, or to whip him, if he thinks either the best method of procedure, is effectually hindered from doing all he ought or all he is capable of in the line of developing character. What right has a Committee publicly to insult scores of teachers in that wholesale way! What right has a Committee to employ a person to train immortal souls whom they cannot trust to govern as he thinks best! What symmetry of character can be expected in such conditions! Schools that are to develop character must have teachers who are worthy of confidence and who possess it in full and honorable measure.

The good teacher! Who can paint his portrait? We instinctively think of Pestalozzi, of Arnold, of Agassiz, of a host of noble women, and then our thought rises to Him whom we love to call "The Great Teacher" and whose divine patience, enthusiasm, and self-sacrifice must have their humble imitation in every soul that aspires to that high name. The good teachers, those who have been successful in forming character, and who have impressed themselves on their pupils and their age, have always owed their success less to intellectual gifts or great acquisitions than to their own moral character. There are people of excellent moral character whom yet we might be associated with a thousand years without gaining a single impulse to higher living. Such are not the good teachers—they are souls filled with moral enthusiasm—to whom righteousness is not obligation but delight, not law but liberty—"high souls on fire with God," whose contact warms and vivifies the germs of goodness in all about them, and who lift and develop their pupils less by what they say and do (though they say and do much) than by what they are. Such teachers are in humble measure like Christ, the touch of whose garment was health, and lift their pupils by a divine contagion of virtue. Such are the teachers whom our schools need. It is a sin to entrust the training of God's "little ones" to any others.

I have thus tried to show that we can develop symmetrical character in our schools only by cultivating in them, through all their daily work, an all-pervading atmosphere of liberty, truth, and purity. That such conditions exist in many schools under a noble army of teachers, I am glad to believe, that in many others they can not exist till there has been a thorough and radical change in the aims of the school, in the teachers, and in the public sentiment which makes both what they are, I am very sure. But it seems to me one of the most encouraging signs of the times that everywhere people are beginning to recognize the transcendent importance of this subject, and that we now hear so often and so earnestly asked the question "How can we develop symmetrical character in our schools?"

At the close of the reading of Miss HYDE's paper Mr. ZALMON RICHARDS objected to discussion, fearing it would spoil the effect of the paper, which he likened to a beautiful rose, and this sentiment meeting with the approval of the audience, the evening program was announced and the meeting adjourned.

LELIA E. PATRIDGE, Secretary.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 13, 1880.

The Department met in the Amphitheatre at 2 P. M. The President, E. E. WHITE, President of Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana,* delivered the following opening address on

TECHNICAL TRAINING IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

The American people are awakening to the importance of technical training—so universally recognized in the older countries of Europe. The rapid exhaustion of the natural fertility of our soil, the wonderful increase in the variety of our manufactures, and the marked improvement in the taste of our people, largely the result of general education, all demand higher technical knowledge and skill on the part of the American workman. This increasing demand for better work has been attended by a steady decline of the apprentice-system, which hitherto has been our chief reliance for the training of artisans. It is becoming more and more evident that if this decay of apprenticeship is not made good by technical training, in some efficient form, the American manufacturer will be at the mercy of the skilled labor of Europe. The railroad, the steamship, and the telegraph have largely destroyed industrial isolation, and all skilled labor is subject to a world-wide competition. The American artisan must compete with European workmen in skill, or retire from the shop and surrender the market. The day of muscle in industry has passed, and the day of mind, with skill of eye and hand, has dawned.

The necessity of technical training being conceded, how can it best be provided? This, as is seen, involves the question to be considered in this paper, viz., What is the place of technical training in American education? And this involves the further question, "To what extent can technical training be given in our public schools?" It seems to the writer that the time has come when an attempt to answer these questions involves no assumption of superior wisdom. A vast amount of information respecting technical schools and technical training in other countries has been collected, and experiments have gone far enough to furnish the requisite data for safe generalization and the adoption of a general policy, details being left for future experience to test and settle.

Whatever may be true, it is my purpose to speak in this presence with some assurance that my views are neither visionary nor hasty, and I shall express them boldly, confident that if I am in error there are those here who are both able and ready to set me right—and time enough will be left for the easy task.

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*The Indiana College of Science, Agriculture, and the Mechanic Arts.

PRINCIPLES INVOLVED.

A concise statement of a few of the fundamental principles involved may not only avoid misunderstanding, but may shed a clear light on the question before us.

The State has the right to teach any branch of knowledge that will promote the public welfare. This is the broad proposition on which public education rests. The attempt to draw a line through education and deny the right of the State to cross it, is illogical and futile. The State has either the right to teach all branches of knowledge, or it has no right to teach any branch. There is no middle ground.

The right of the State to teach all knowledge does not necessarily make such instruction its duty. The right to teach is one thing, and the obligation to teach is another. The duty of the State in education is limited by its ability. It cannot teach all persons all knowledge, and it is not its duty to attempt it. When the teaching of one kind of knowledge necessarily excludes more important instruction, the State is released from obligation to teach such knowledge. If it has not the ability to cover the whole ground, it becomes its duty to give attention to the more important and useful.

The duty of the State to teach is also conditioned by necessity. The State has no monopoly of education. The church, the family, and the individual have also the right to teach, and every human interest may organize and support schools for its promotion and benefit. When needed instruction is, or will be, given by other agencies, the State may or may not provide it. Its concern is to see that such necessary instruction is efficiently given.

The primary and imperative duty of the public school is to provide training and to teach knowledge of general application and utility. It recognizes no class distinctions, social or industrial, but provides a general education for all classes of youth. It is a *common* school, a school designed to impart a common education—an education open to all and useful to all.

This primary function of the public school is of the highest practical importance and value. Its comprehensive aim is to prepare the child to discharge the duties and meet the obligations of coming manhood, including his relations to the family, society, and the State,—relations involving the highest and most important activities of civilized life. In performing this function, the public school assumes that every child that crosses its threshold to receive instruction, is to be a *man*, and that his first and highest need is to have all the elements of manhood within him developed, quickened, and energized. The first element in this elementary training is character, and the second is intelligence,—moral and intellectual furnishing and force.

The public school, as above defined, exhausts neither the right nor the duty of the State in education. The State may establish higher institutions and it may organize or encourage special schools to promote important industries or to meet the wants of classes. It has the right to supplement the public school by special schools for technical training.

TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

We are now prepared to ask whether any technical instruction can be provided by the public school without subverting its primary function—without sacrificing the more important and imperative for the less important and the incidental.

The elements of technical knowledge which are of general application and utility may clearly be taught in the public school. These may include instruction in industrial or mechanical drawing, the practical applications of geometry, the keeping of accounts, the elements of the physical and natural sciences, modelling in clay, and those elementary mechanical processes which may be made an efficient means of general training. Such instruction is not only the basis of technical training, but is of great value to all youth, whatever may be their occupations and positions in life. It is useful as a general preparation for *all* pursuits. Time for this instruction may be gained by reducing the time hitherto devoted to several other branches of study. This has been done in many schools without loss, and the adoption of truer ideas and better methods of teaching would make it possible and feasible in all.

The technical instruction above indicated may properly be called *general*, in distinction to that which relates to a particular trade or pursuit which is *special*. Special technical training involves the use of the tools and other appliances of given trades and occupations. In the mechanic arts, it includes what is known as handicraft—skill in the use of tools, machinery, and materials. Its purpose is not general training but special preparation for a special pursuit.

Should this special technical instruction be made an integral part of the work of the public school? In the light of the principles above stated, and of industrial experience I unhesitatingly answer *no:* It is not the duty of the public school to teach trades, and an attempt to do this work on an adequate scale would subvert public education from its primary purpose and end in disappointment and failure. The sooner this is understood and accepted, the better for both industrial and general education.

OBJECTIONS TO THE TEACHING OF TRADES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Several objections to the teaching of trades in the public school may thus be stated:

1. It is impossible for the public school to teach a tithe of its pupils the pursuit or occupation by which they are to earn a living. A glance at the list of occupations given in the report of the census of 1870, will satisfy any one that but very few of the three hundred and thirty-eight occupations therein named, can be made a part of the public-school course. Of the one hundred and seventy-two occupations, classed as "Manufactures, and Mechanical and Mining Industries," not a score can be taught in a school shop, and but few of these can thus be taught with any efficiency. The public school would make a large contract if it should

undertake to train its pupils to be bakers, bleachers, dyers, book-binders, brewers, brick and tile makers, butchers, candle and soap makers, carpet makers, carriage and wagon makers, charcoal burners, cheese makers, cigar makers, confectioners, coopers, tinners, tanners, photographers, distillers, engineers, gas-work employés, glass makers, gold and silver workers, gun and lock smiths, harness and saddle makers, hat and cap makers, boot and shoe makers, iron-furnace and rolling-mill operatives, cotton-, woolen-, and silk-mill operatives, steam-boiler and steam-engine makers, tobacco-factory operatives, upholsterers, and wheelwrights. The attempt to teach one-fifth of these and like trades to all youth would exhaust the present resources of the public schools.

2. The teaching of a few trades to all pupils would crowd these pursuits with workmen and reduce the compensation of skilled labor therein to the wages of common laborers..

The turning of the pupils in the public schools of our cities and towns into a few channels of industry, would glut these occupations and leave many skilled workmen without employment. The training of all the boys to be carpenters and blacksmiths, for example, would be worse than industrial folly. Not a tithe of them could earn a living as hand-tool mechanics. Handicraft is fast disappearing and more and more mechanical work is done by machinery. The coming artisan will be the master of the machine, as has been clearly shown by Professor THOMPSON, of the Technical School, of Worcester, Massachusetts. The teaching of handicraft in the schools would give nine-tenths of the pupils skill which they would never use in after life, or use only incidentally.

A reference to the statistics of industry will show that the above statements are not too strong. A recent paper on technical education contains a table of occupation statistics in Massachusetts, showing that about one-fourth of the laboring population of the State are engaged in manufacturing and mechanical industries. It asserts that these 300,000 workmen represent skilled labor in productive industry, and the inference is suggested, if not stated, that the skill of these artisans would be greatly increased by a knowledge of mechanical drawing. The census of 1870 shows that less than one-third of these artisans are working in wood and iron, using handicraft skill, and we estimate that not more than 50,000, or one-twentieth of the working population of the State, are hand-tool mechanics. Would it not be wiser, as well as cheaper, to train these 50,000 skilled artisans in well-equipped shops and special schools than to make the weak and vain attempt to train half a million mechanics in the public schools to supply several mechanical industries with fifty-thousand skilled workmen ?

This objection does not apply to the training of pupils in the use of hand-tools and in simple mechanical processes when such training is made *a means of general education*—the training of the eye, the hand, the mind for educational purposes. Such training is not the teaching of trades or handicrafts, but is general technical training, the same as mechanical drawing, and *as such* has a place in the public-school course. The extent of such training will depend on its value as an element of general education.

3. The objection to a partial system of industrial training—the teaching of a few trades to a few pupils—is its manifest injustice. The public school can provide such special training only at the expense of its facilities and appliances for general education. Why should the value of the public school to the great majority of its pupils be lowered to teach trades to a small number of youth? Why should a few pupils be taught trades and the great majority of youth left without such training? The question has no satisfactory answer. The workshop can not be put into the public school without a sacrifice of its efficiency as an agency for general education. Besides, the teaching of hand-tool trades to a few pupils in the public school is mere playing with the great problem of industrial training. Every productive industry needs the assistance of special technical training.

This objection does not apply to the teaching of trades in reformatory schools, orphan asylums, institutions for the blind, the deaf and dumb, etc. These are special schools for classes of unfortunate youth, and the pupils therein may be taught trades at public expense on the same principle that they are fed and clothed.

The three objections above stated show that the public school can not wisely undertake the work of special technical training. To do this, it must train all children for their respcctive future pursuits, or it must teach a few pursuits to all, or it must teach a few pupils chosen pursuits —and the objections to each of these courses seem to us to be conclusive.

A recent report of the school committee of an Eastern city, contains this statement:

"The question of teaching trades in our schools is one of vital importance. If New England would maintain her place as the great industrial centre of the country, she must become to the United States what France is to the rest of Europe: the first in taste, the first in design, the first in skilled workmanship. She must accustom her children from early youth to the use of tools, and give them a thorough training in the mechanic arts."

This has been pronounced "the most important utterance yet made in this country on the subject of technical education." If the first sentence fully interprets the meaning of the statement as a whole, we give it, as our humble opinion, that the utterance is the most impracticable educational scheme which has yet received official sanction. We submit that the teaching of trades in the public schools should not be a question in the minds of the intelligent and practical educators of the foremost school city of the country. The maxim that the head and the hand should be trained together, is, in one sense, an important educational principle, but as a statement that the public school should teach every pupil to work with his hands while it trains him to think " with his head," it is impracticable and misleading. It may be true that every child of the requisite age should be taught to work while he receives his schooling, but it does not follow that this work should be supplied and directed by the public school. The family has something to do in the training of children, and a considerable portion of child life is still under the parents' control. The public school has hitherto recognized the fact, and it has wisely attempted to do everything which industry, religion, and civilization demand in the education of each generation.

The public school cannot wisely be made a workshop for the training of apprentices, but it can and should give such *general* technical training as underlies all industrial pursuits. The special instruction and practice needed to make a coat, shoe a horse, or build a house, should be left to the shop, or to special trade-schools properly equipped for this work. The public school has done its part in preparing youth for special pursuits when it has given them an efficient, general preparation for all pursuits, and all industrial experience shows that the more fundamental and thorough this general preparation, the more fruitful will be the special training.

What is needed is to supplement the public school with a system of special schools for technical or industrial training.

But how are these special schools for industrial training to be organized and supported? The political, social, and industrial conditions of the nations of Europe differ so radically from those of this country, that it is not always wise to be guided by European experiences in education; but it will be safe to assume that whatever private enterprise has been equal to there, it will be equal to here.

As a rule, the higher technical and agricultural schools are directed and maintained by the government, and many schools of arts and trades receive more or less state and municipal aid. The more strictly industrial schools, especially those which teach industrial arts or trades, are private institutions, supported and directed by individuals, or by the industries interested, or by philanthropic societies. The number of these special schools has increased, until nearly every art and industry has its training or trade-school.

We see no reason why this experience may not be repeated in this country. The national government has laid the foundation of at least one industrial school of a high grade in each State, and, in accepting this bequest, each State has pledged its faith for the maintenance of the institution thus founded. Polytechnic and technical schools, but little less comprehensive, have been founded by private munificence, and schools of art are springing up in all our cities. The conditional offer of state and municipal aid would induce every important productive industry to establish technical or trade schools, for the training of skilled workmen.

What is needed to secure a full development of this system of special schools is a popular demand for technical instruction, and this is coming Experience is demonstrating the practical value of such training, and every important American industry will soon have its technical school, especially if the public school is held to its work.

CHANGE IN PUBLIC-SCHOOL REQUIREMENTS.

For the complete success of this system of industrial training the requirements of the public school should be so modified as to permit pupils over say twelve years of age to devote a part of each day to labor or to special technical training. I have long held that the interests of both education and industry would be promoted by the adoption of half-time courses of study, running parallel with the present full courses and in the same classes. The half-time course should contain only the essential and more important branches of study, and the daily program should be so arranged as to bring the instruction in these branches into a half-day—either the forenoon or the afternoon. This arrangement would avoid the organization of separate schools for half-time pupils, and their consequent separation from the other pupils; and, at the same time, it would afford the advantages of full-time schools, without loss to pupils who wish to devote full-time to school work. The limits of this paper forbid the giving of details. It must suffice to say that such an adjustment has stood the test of experience in several of the German States. I received the idea from the school system of Bavaria.

Permit me, in conclusion, to deprecate that advocacy of technical education which disparages the industrial value of general education, and more than hints that the public school is an industrial failure. If this be true of the public school, it is clear that neither industrial drawing nor instruction in sewing will prove an adequate remedy. But the public school is not an industrial failure. It has been and is the most effective of all agencies for the promotion of American industry. Its training touches both of the prime conditions of productive industry. It awakens desires and incites and impels man to effort—and labor, enterprise, and wealth are the results. It gives ingenuity to the mind and cunning to the fingers. Thought in the brain of labor is the alchemy of industry, turning everything it touches into gold. Intelligence and character are the two great conservators of wealth. Who can estimate the intrinsical value of the common-schools of New England?

It is not claimed that the public school is doing its full duty in promoting the productive industries of the country. It should give a larger place in its course to general technical instruction; it should be pervaded by a more earnest industrial spirit; and it should do more to cultivate a taste for industrial pursuits and a respect for honest labor. These practical advances are more important than a weak attempt to make artisans.

This address was discussed by Z. RICHARDS, of Washington, D. C., C: R. ABBOT, of New York, and EDWARD A. SPRING, of New Jersey.

Mr. ABBOT said:—

The gentleman does not state who is to support the technical schools. No one can reasonably object to the establishment of such schools, but many of our best citizens do object to taxing the State for their support. Because a great benefit may be derived, it does *not* follow that the State must pay the expense, any more than because the possession of a comfortable amount of property is desirable for a citizen, that it is the duty of the State to offer to each citizen a farm or other means of living.

Mr. SPRING said:—

"I should like, Mr. President, to offer an improvement in a sentence of the former gentleman's remark, which I doubt not he would agree to.

He said, 'let us supplement the hour spent in the school-room on the theory of surveying by an hour of work in the field.'

The transposition I would suggest though seemingly a matter of detail, involves, I believe, one of the most important principles of education. Facts first, theories afterwards.

I would then say: 'Supplement an hour's practical surveying in the field by time in the school-room, devoted to the theory. Supposing we are considering a school where surveying is to be taught—and is, to speak of our general schools, I would say;—if we wish for instance to teach a general class the principle of mixing a dry powder with a liquid, as I illustrated this morning with clay, let this general class of children who may later in life, be cooks, or dyers, or potters, or painters, or of any occupation that mixes powders with liquids, first do the mixing, and then be led to understand the governing laws.

J: M. Gregory, of Champaign, Ill., then read the following paper on

TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION IN THE LAND-GRANT COLLEGES.

By request, I discus the subject of Technical Education in the land-grant Colleges. It is too late to ask or offer any defence of technical education itself. The great Polytechnic Schools of Europe, multiplied at government expense as a necessary measure of national economy, long ago settld the question of the important valu of such schools. The testimony of such men as Lyon Playfair, and the Commissioners of the English Parliament, to the public policy and necessity of technical education, may wel be quoted to reliev us from making, and you from listening to, any new argument for the filosofy and valu of such education. The Sciences and Arts of the 19th century need no apology for claiming so large a place in our systems of public instruction.

The magnificent land grant made by Congress in 1862 for the establishment of Colleges of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts was in direct accordance with the spirit of the age. It was dictated alike by wise statesmanship and sound filosofy.

Thoughtless or prejudiced men hav said that this donation by Congress was a mere political sop thrown to the Agricultural classes, to win their votes; or a concession to certain il-informed educational reformers who wer in revolt against the old, time-honord classical system of education; or, at best, was the work of amiabl but mistakn enthusiasts who thought they saw in the technical education of the laboring classes the remedy for current evils, or the means to a possibl good. Something of all these may hav been found among the advocates of the new education; but it would be a serious mistake to attribute the action of Congress, and of those to whom Congress listened, to such mean or mistakn views alone. It is much nearer the truth to recognize it as a wave in a great popular movement in education—a movement impeld and directed by the 19th-century advance in science and manufactures. So large a change in the intellectual and industrial condition of civilized peopls, necessarily drew after it some corresponding change in the character of education. Technical education is the logical outcome of the advance of science.

OBSTACLS.

But tho thus following the powerful attraction of a grander and deeper movement, technical education, in the land-grant Colleges, found no open or prepared path before it. Neither society nor rivers can make a new channel without meeting many obstacls. Technical education had long been known in Europe, but was new in America. Tho designd for the peopl, it did not take its origin among the peopl. A few leaders, of broad culture but of popular sympathies, caught sight of the movement begun acros the ocean, and understood its deep significance and importance. Their arguments urged and obtaind the Congressional donation from the public domain, but they could not, all at once convert to their beliefs, evn the classes whom they sought to benefit. There is a moral and mental inertia of the masses. The peopl accept slowly new ideas, new processes, new institutions. They fear experiments. It has been hard to get farmers to believe in Agricultural Colleges. Mechanicians and Architects have distrusted school learning for their professions and business.

One would willingly draw the veil over the meaner, becaus les honest, forms of opposition which the land-grant colleges hav encounterd,—the narrow jelousy of schoolmen stupidly wedded to old courses of studies and unabl to discern any good in the new—the opposition of old institutions fearing the competition of new and better endowed schools; the pretentious dogmatism of would-be leaders angry becaus they wer not permitted to foist their il-digested conceits upon the movement; and meanest and most malignant of all, disappointed aspirants for places, and discarded incapables anxious to resent the slight put upon their fancied talents or lerning. So far as my observation has extended in several States, the injurious attacks upon the land-grant Colleges through the pres hav come from these "sore-heads." But as all great philanthropic and humanitarian movements hav met invariably these oppositions, we had no right to hope that technical and industrial education shall escape the common lot.

Charity might also ask us to draw the veil, if public duty would permit it, over the mistakes of those who hav been entrusted with the management of these Colleges. Misconceptions of their work hav been frequent, and not a few mistakes in their plans hav hinderd their success. But none have been quicker than themselvs in general to see their mistakes, and none more redy to rectify them.

KINDS OF LAND-GRANT COLLEGES.

The land-grant Colleges embrace institutions of widely-differing character and history. They include State Universities to which the grant added new scientific and technologic departments; old agricultural and technic schools which the grant strengthend and enlarged, new State Universities founded on the grant itself and on other donations given by individuals or communities, in which technical education was givn the post of honor; and fourthly new agricultural and technological schools found by the grant in States alredy having State Colleges or Universities.

Here, as in Europe, two theories hav prevaild as to the organization of higher technological schools. The one theory has preferred their union with universities. The other has chosn to make them separate and independent schools. Here as abroad, chance has often decided the choice. Prosperous schools of both sorts exist, but the most popular and most numerously attended ar in general those connected with the universities.

Arguments can esily be found for each theory, but experience must settl the question.

THRE GRADES OF TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

The land-grant institutions ar nearly all of the College grade, but a complete understanding of the subject demands that we keep in mind the fact that there ar different grades in technical, as there ar in common education. There ar properly thre such grades. The first and lowest aims simply at teaching an art, and seeks to make skilful workmen. It teaches rules and processes rather than principles, and only so much of theory as may be necessary to make intelligent artisans. To this grade belong the trade and the apprentice schools of Europe. The second aims to make master mechanics, agricultural stewards, and managers of industry in all departments. It teaches science and its applications to enabl its students to master and improve processes, apply principls, and control results.

The third grade is almost purely scientific. Its aim is the thoro investigation of the sciences which underlie the arts, and the scientific explanation of the phenomena they present. Its purpose, as an education, is to prepare teachers and investigators of science, and of the arts.

The French aimd to provide for these thre grades in their thre classes of agricultural schools. The Germans also hav technical and agricultural schools of the several grades, but in general the work of the two higher grades is united in the common polytechnic schools of Europe, as it is also in our land-grant colleges. They hav not aimd to train farm laborers, or journeymen mechanics. For these, practice schools or a regular apprenticeship is needed. But they hav sought to train scientific leaders,—captains of industry, teachers, writers, and investigators. Much of the confusion apparent in the public mind in regard to these colleges, would be avoided by a careful attention to these grades of technical instruction. It must be evident that no one school can cover the thre fields. The two higher so nearly coincide that they may be united in the same institution, tho differing, to some extent, both in processes and aims; but the lowest cannot be properly included in the same institution with either of the others. Its aim is the art as a trade, and its chief business is to giv practice in order to gain skil. Experience proves that with wel-chosn and systematic exercises, the school shop is superior to the common apprentice system for teaching trades: but the technical college would sacrifice its higher and more important end should it attempt such extended practical exercises.

THE DIVERGENCIES,

of the land-grant colleges in the respects noticed ar not the only ones, nor indeed the most numerous. They hav differd both in aims and methods according to the conceptions of their founders and managers. Some yielding to the popular wish hav made the educational element strong, and the technical small and weak, and hav thus differd but littl from other colleges except in the larger measure of science in their courses. Others, in their anxiety to be practical, hav diminisht the scholastic element and exalted unduly the technical, and hav become merely a higher sort of practice schools. Ignorant of, or neglecting the light of experience, some hav tried wild experiments with littl profit, and ending in failure. The variations hav in general, swung between the two extremes of the purely educational and the merely technical; or between the two other extremes of science without practice, and practice without science. We may neglect here the variations between agricultural and mechanical or engineering schools. These ar variations in the classes of technics taught, and hav been governd by the predominant industries of the State concernd, the agricultural States demanding chiefly agricultural schools, and the manufacturing States, schools of mechanical engineering and art.

AN ILLUSTRATION.

Neither time nor information would serve to describe in detail the land-grant colleges in order. I cite the Illinois Industrial University as an illustrativ exampl, becaus having been connected with it from its outset, I am best acquainted with its career. This institution was organized under the land-grant law, and receivd its chief endowment from the Congressional donation of 480,000 acres in land-scrip. It receivd also a munificent donation of $450,000 from the county in which it is located, and it has been further aided by appropriations from the State amounting to over $300,000. By law it was made a University, and as Illinois had no State University proper, it became the State University. It thus took the theory of the union of university and technical education. But while thus aiming to comprehend all forms of higher education, it did not relegate the scientific and technical to a subordinate place, but gave them equal rank with the classical. Its theory of study in all branches, scientific as wel as technical, was the union of theory and observation. In the technical branches, it from the outset introduced and maintaind shop and field practice, not to teach trades but to make its instruction more thoro, comprehensibl, and practical. Its chemical, fysical, fysiological, mechanical, botanical and other laboratories hav worked side by side with the progress in the corresponding sciences. Two or three years before the great technical schools of Russia made their famous exhibits at Vienna and Philadelphia, and opend the eyes of our Eastern brethren to the valu and feasibility of a sytematic shop practice for students of mechanical engineering, the shops of this University wer doing substantially the same work.

The University has seven courses of studies in technic schools, two courses in science, and two in general literature and science for general education. The technic courses include thre in engineering, civil, mechanical, and mining; one in architecture, one in agriculture, one in horticulture, and one in domestic science. The two courses in science ar that in analytical and applied chemistry, and that in the natural history sciences. The two courses in literature and general science embrace a classical course in the modern languages and literature. Each of these eleven courses extends thro four years, and leads to an appropriate degree.

The technical courses ar made up, 1. of a thoro course of the technical branches, theoretical and practical, belonging to the school, 2. of the sciences cognate to the course, and 3. of such literary, historical and other studies as the time allows, and as may better fit the student for investigating or explaining his art.

The primary aim of these technical courses is to giv the student a thoro knowledge of the theory of his art, and of the sciences on which it depends, with such practical exercises as may insure his comprehension of principls, and giv him a clearer insight into their applications. As a graduate he is prepared to enter upon the practice of his profession, and to gain skil by an intelligent experience, or to become a higher student and teacher of his art if genius or duty so direct his choice. His university and non-professional studies hav givn a broader culture and a larger hold upon life and society.

It is believd that the university character of the institution has been an important advantage to its technical work. 1. It has increast the number of technical students. Many who came for general education hav been attracted to the technical courses, rarely, if ever, in the other direction. 2. The technical courses hav gaind dignity in the eyes of students, by their university connection. The technical students have stood as high in college esteem as those in general courses of education. Of the ten classes graduated, the foremost men in thre wer students in agriculture; in two the first men wer engineers, and in the other classes the honors wer divided.

3. Technical and scientific studies hav gaind in public esteem, by their connection with the university, and hav obtaind a wider dissemination through the many general students who hav takn partial courses in such studies. Every succes won by the University as a university, has reacted to the advantage of technical education.

RESULTS.

1. The experience of this university favors, beyond question the union of technical schools with our universities; and certainly so if the technical school is made co-ordinate with the best schools, and not an inferior dependency.

2. The feasibility and valu of technical education has also been demonstrated afresh, and for the American peopl. The positions alredy occupied by the graduates from the technical schools of the university ar a sufficient proof of the valu of technical training and knowledge.

CONCLUSION.

What wil be the fate and outcome of these land-grant colleges? I answer without hesitation, and with emphasis, their final succes is certain; their valu to the country wil, in time, amply justify the wisdom of their endowment. They wil pay back to the country a hundred-fold for the donation which gave them existence. They ar in line with the master forces of the age. They interlock with the magnificent Sciences and Arts of the 19th century. Their mistakes wil be corrected. They wil convert their foes. They wil be followd by their rivals. They lead the educational revolution which is alredy invading our oldest and most conservativ institutions. Their triumph wil ad another to the victories which man has won over his environment, over nature, over himself. They wil react upon science by enlarging its field, setting it new problems, demonstrating its discoveries, and giving broader usefulnes to its great facts and truths. They wil popularize education by giving it new and practical application and valu. They wil aid the arts by giving them traind investigators, inventors, and leaders, and by bringing larger lights from science into workshops and fields. They wil help on civilization through all its fields and all its forces. They wil thus promote the welbeing of Man, and giv glory to God the Creator of Nature and man.

Adjourned.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 14, 1880.

The Department met at the "Headquarters" in the Palace Hotel. The election of officers resulted as follows:

President, E. E. White, Lafayette, Ind.,
Vice-President, W: W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn.,
Secretary, S: R. Thompson, Lincoln, Nebr.

After some time spent in discussing the ways and means of promoting Industrial Education, on motion of W: W. Folwell it was voted that hereafter it should be the duty of the Secretary of the Department to procure statistics of the condition and progress of Industrial Education during each year, and to report the same to the Department at its annual meeting. It was agreed that some competent person should be invited by the President of the Department to prepare a paper for the next meeting, on the "Decay of Apprenticeship, its Cause and Remedies.

The Department chose as its representatives in the National Council of Education, E. E. White, C: O. Thompson, and W: W. Folwell.

Adjourned.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 13, 1880.

The Department was called to order by J. O. WILSON. A. J. RICKOFF was chosen temporary Chairman, and HORACE S. TARBELL temporary Secretary.

The election of officers for the next year resulted as follows:

President, A. P. MARBLE, Worcester, Massachusetts.

Vice-President, N. S. CALKINS, New York, N. Y.

Secretary, SAMUEL FINDLEY, Akron, Ohio.

On motion of A. J. RICKOFF, the Secretary was instructed to draw up suitable resolutions in regard to the life and death of BERNARD MALLON.

On this resolution S. G. BRINKLEY, of Georgia, spoke as follows:

Mr. President: Allow me to say one word in regard to Mr. MALLON. He was the life and soul of the Georgia Teachers' Association, one of its founders, and one who labored hard to create and sustain an interest in its meetings. He was the man from whom I first caught inspiration as a teacher, and at whose feet I learned something of the art of teaching. During the month of July, of last year, he conducted, at Emory College, Oxford, Georgia, the first Normal Institute ever established in the State. I had the great pleasure of attending that Institute. When Mr. MALLON left the State of Georgia to accept the Presidency of the Sam-Houston Normal School, Huntsville, Texas, we all regretted his departure very much; but when we learned of his sudden death, we could not find words to express our sorrow.

Mr. President, I do not say too much when I tell you that the whole State of Georgia loved and honored Mr. MALLON, and now she still mourns his loss. He has left upon education in Georgia an impression that will be felt beyond the times and places that have had the good fortune to enjoy his immediate supervision.

It was voted that at the final adjournment of the Department, it adjourn to meet in Washington, D. C., at such time the coming winter as may be arranged by the officers of the Department and the Commissioner of Education.

Adjourned to meet on call of Vice-President CALKINS, if another meeting be needed before the final adjournment of the General Association.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 14, 1880.

Department met at 5 P. M., on call of Vice-President CALKINS.

J. P. WICKERSHAM, J. O. WILSON, and A. J. RICKOFF were chosen representatives of the Department in the National Council of Education.

The vote to meet in Washington was reconsidered, and the time and place of meeting was left to the officers of the Department.

Adjourned.

H. S. TARBELL, Secretary.

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

CONSTITUTION:

[*As Amended July* 13 *and* 16, 1880.]

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

§ 1. It shall consist of five Departments: the first, of School Superintendence; the second, of Normal Schools; the third, of Elementary Schools; and the fourth, of Higher Instruction, and the fifth of Industrial Education, and a National Council of Education.

§ 2. Other Departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

§ 1. Any person in any way connected with the work of education shall be eligible to membership. Such person may become a member of this Association by paying two dollars and signing this Constitution; and he may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of two dollars. On his neglect to pay such fee, his membership shall cease.

§ 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

§ 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a life-member by paying at once, twenty dollars.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

§ 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, one Counsellor for each State, District, or Territory represented in the Association, and the officers charged with the administration of their respective departments. Any friend of education may become a life-director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or on his behalf; and any educational association may secure a perpetual directorship by a like donation of one hundred dollars, the director to be appointed annually or for life.

§ 2. The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Counsellors, Life-Directors, and presiding officers of their respective departments, shall constitute the Board of Directors, and, as such, shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

§ 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen.

§ 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs.

§ 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the first Vice-President in order who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all the Vice-Presidents, a *pro-tempore* Chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

§ 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors; and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign; and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

§ 7. The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association, shall expend the same only upon the order of the Committee of Finance; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association, and shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association. He shall give bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors.

§ 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings; and shall do all in its power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

§ 9. The Board of Directors shall appoint three trustees into whose hands shall be placed for safe keeping and investment, all funds which the Association may receive from the creation of life-directorships, or from donations, unless the donors shall specify other purposes for which they may be used. The income of such funds so invested shall be used exclusively in defraying the expense of publishing the annual volume of the Association, unless the donors shall specify otherwise. The Board of Directors shall require such trustees to give to the Association their joint bond in a sum equal to twice the amount of such trust fund as may be in their hands.

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

§ 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

§ 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five Directors.

§ 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

§ 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place, and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

§ 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

§ 6. Each new Board shall organize on the day of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS.

By-Laws not inconsistent with this Constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous meeting.

BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations; one on Honorary Members; and one on Resolutions.

2. The President, First Vice-President, and Secretary, shall constitute a Committee on Finance.

3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its proceedings.

4. No paper, lecture, or address, shall be read before the Association or any of its departments, in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address, be published in the volume of proceedings without the consent of the Association in each case.

MEMBERSHIP

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

LIST OF LIFE-DIRECTORS.

BALTIMORE, 1876.

Phelps, W: F., Winona, Minn.,
White, S. H., Peoria, Ill.

LOUISVILLE, 1877.

Marshall, T: Marcellus, Glenville, W. Va.

PHILADELPHIA, 1879.

Philadelphia Teachers' Institute.

LIST OF LIFE-MEMBERS.

[Addresses have been changed from those of last year only in cases in which the change has come under the positive knowledge of the Secretary.]

OGDENSBURG, 1864.

Barnard, Henry, Hartford, Conn.,
Bradley, P., Lyons, N. Y.,
Cruikshank, J., Brooklyn, N. Y.,
Danforth, Edward, Elmira, N. Y.,
Eberhart, J. F., Chicago, Ill.,
Hagar, D. B., Salem, Mass.,
Pennell, C. S., St. Louis, Mo.,
Richards, Z., Washington, D. C.,
Wells,* D. F., Iowa City, Iowa.
White, S. H., Peoria, Ill.

HARRISBURG, 1865.

Greene, S. S., Providence, R. I.,
Hartshorn, O. N., Mt. Union, Ohio,
Ingram, S. D., Harrisburg, Pa.,
Sheldon, W: E., Boston, Mass.,
Wickersham, J. P., Harrisburg, Pa.

INDIANAPOLIS, 1866.

Curran, U. T., Sandusky, Ohio,
McRae, H. S., Muncie, Ind.,
Mayhew, Ira, Albion, Mich.,
Norris,* J: A., Columbus, Ohio.

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* Deceased.

CLEVELAND, 1870.

Arey, Oliver, Cleveland, Ohio,
Allen, Ira W., Chicago, Ill.,
Cole, W: H., Marysville, Ohio,
Crosby, W: E., Davenport, Iowa,
Hoyt, J. W., Madison, Wis.,
Hoose, J. H., Cortland, N. Y.,
Hobbs, B. C., Annapolis, Ind.,
Heywood, C. W., Cheshire, Mich.,
Holden, L. F. Cleveland, Ohio,
Jones, D.W., Boston (Roxb'y), Mass.,
Williams, Mrs. Delia A., Delaware, O.,
Manly, R. M., Richmond, Va.,
M'Guffey,* W: H., Charlotteville, Va.,
Phelps, W: F., Winona, Minn.,
Read,* Daniel, Columbia, Mo.,
Rickoff, A. J., Cleveland, Ohio.,
Stone, Mrs. M. A., New Milford, Ct.,
Tourjee, Eben, Boston, Mass.,
Wilcox, M. C., Boston, Mass.,
White, Emerson E., Lafayette, Ind.

ST. LOUIS, 1871.

Anderson, J: J., New York, N. Y., Box 1619.

BOSTON, 1872.

Stone, E. M., Providence, R. I.

ELMIRA, 1873.

Haines,* Miss Henrietta B., New York, N. Y.

BALTIMORE, 1876.

Armstrong, Allen, Sioux City, Iowa,
Beals, S. D., Omaha, Nebraska,
Bell, W: A., Indianapolis, Ind.,
Brooks, Edward, Millersville, Pa.,
Cruikshank, Jas., Brooklyn, N. Y.,
Dorna, G. Videla, New York, N. Y.,
Forbes, Alex., Cleveland, Ohio,
Hancock, John, Dayton, Ohio,
Harris, W: T., Concord, Mass.,
Henkle, W: D., Salem, Ohio,
Marshall, T: M., Glenville, W. Va.,
Newell, M. A., Baltimore, Md.,
Richmond, Sarah E., Baltimore, Md.,
Rollins, Jas. S., Columbia, Mo.,
Rounds, C. C., Farmington, Me.,
Schmitz, J. Adolph, Lake Forest, Ill.,
Stevens, M. C., Lafayette, Ind.,
Stone, Mrs. M. A., New Milford, Conn.,
Thompson, L. S., Lafayette, Ind.,
White, Emerson E., Lafayette, Ind.,
Wickersham, J. P., Harrisburgh, Pa.

LOUISVILLE, 1877.

Bartholomew, W. H., Louisville, Ky.,
Franklin, M. B., Grapevine, Texas,
Kalfus, Anna I., Louisville, Ky.,
McRae, Ham. S., Muncie, Ind.,
Mills,* Caleb, Crawfordsville, Ind.,
Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L. Louisville, Ky.,
Smart, J. H., Indianapolis, Ind.,
Soldan, F. Louis, St. Louis, Mo.

PHILADELPHIA, 1879.

Calkins, N. A., New York., N. Y.,
Foster, Rachel Gordon, 1909 N. 12th St., Philadelphia, Pa.,
Gratz,† Simon, Philadelphia, Pa.,
John, Kraus, New York, N. Y.,
McMillan, Reuben, Youngstown, O.,
Paxson, Joseph A., Philadelphia, Pa.,
Sheldon, W: E., Boston, Mass.,
Shippen, Edward, Philadelphia, Pa.

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* Deceased. † Omitted last year by mistake.

CHAUTAUQUA, 1880.

Bennett, Hampton, Franklin, Ohio,
Bibb, Grace C., Columbia, Mo.,
Brown, G: P., Terre Haute, Ind.,
Brown, Leroy D., Hamilton, Ohio,
Burns, Jas. J., Columbus, Ohio,
Coe, Miss E. M., New York, N. Y.,
Davidson, C. C., New Lisbon, Ohio,
Dutton, Bettie A., Cleveland, Ohio,
Gilchrist, J. C., Cedar Falls, Iowa,
Hitz, John, Washington, D. C.,
Irwin, J: S., Fort Wayne, Ind.,
McMillan, Mrs. S., Youngstown, O.,
Marble, Albert P., Worcester, Mass.,
Miller, Lewis, Akron, Ohio.,
Patridge, Lelia E., Philadelphia, Pa.,
Peaslee, John B., Cincinnati, Ohio,
Rickoff, Mrs. R. D., Cleveland, Ohio,
Robert, J. A., Dayton, Ohio,
Setzepfand, A., Dalton, Ga.,
Singer, Edgar A., Philadelphia, Pa.,
Spring, E. A., Perth Amboy, N. J.,
Stevenson, R. W., Columbus, Ohio,
Widner, Esther, Dayton, Ohio,
Wilson, J. O., Washington, D. C.

Mr. Setzepfand sent his fee for life-membership in January, 1880. Miss Dutton and Mr. Singer gave their names for life-memberships after the Chautauqua meeting. In the generous rivalry between Ohio and the rest of the United States at Chautauqua Miss Emily M. Coe expressly stipulated that she should be counted in the Ohio list, being a native of Ohio, although her present residence is in New York. If Miss Patridge's name is not one of the fifteen announced in the Amphitheatre, Thursday morning, July 15, there is an omission of a name, which it is hoped will be supplied for publication in next year's proceedings. The list of fifteen names was never handed to the Secretary, and these names have been supplied from memory and correspondence.

The names of those printed in italics are of those who became life-members when the fee was ten dollars, but who subsequently paid ten dollars more after the life-membership fee was increased to twenty dollars.

The names of seven persons have been dropped from the list of life-members as published last year in consequence of a failure to remit the fees, three from the Baltimore list, 1876, three from the Louisville list, 1877, and one from the Philadelphia list, 1879. These names will be gladly restored as soon as the fees shall be received. If any mistake has occurred in dropping a name the Secretary will cheerfully correct it.

NAMES ENROLLED AT CHAUTAUQUA,

ARRANGED BY STATES.

The names printed in small capitals are of life-members, and those printed in italics are of persons who sent their membership-fee, but who were not present at the Chautauqua meeting.

ALABAMA.

Eugene R. Rivers, Auburn.

CALIFORNIA.

Ezra S. Carr, Pasadena,
J: P. Swett, San Francisco, 1419 Taylor St.

COLORADO.

Aaron Gove, Denver,
D: H. Moore, Denver.

Connecticut.

D: N. Camp, New Britain,
B. G. Northrop, Clinton.
Mrs. M. A. Stone, New Milford.

District of Columbia.

John Eaton, Jr., Washington,
Flora L. Hendly, "
Gertrude Hitz, "
John Hitz, "
Gideon S. Palmer, "
Mrs. Louise Pollock, "
Nellie F. Pumphrey, "
Clarence B. Rheem, "
Z. Richards, Washington,
Mary E. Rowe, "
Helene Schimmelfennig, Washington,
Mary K. Schreiner, "
Mary S. Shields, "
Sarah V. A. Shields, "
J. Ormond Wilson, "

Georgia.

Sterling G. Brinkley, Norwood,
Ichabod F. Cox, La Grange,
Leonidas C. Dickey, Culloden,
Gustavus R. Glenn, Columbus,
Martin B. Hardin, La Grange,
Laura A. Haygood, Atlanta,
C: E. Lambdin, Barnesville,
Gustavus J. Orr, Atlanta,
A. Setzepfand, Dalton,
Nicholas E. Ware, Sharon.

Illinois.

Robert Allyn, Carbondale,
H: M. Douglass, Dixon,
H. L. Grant, Peoria,
J: M. Gregory, Champaign.
Jas. P. Slade, Springfield,
Edwin O. Vaile, Oak Park,
J. Fred. Waggoner, Chicago.

Indiana.

G: P. Brown, Terre Haute,
Miss N Cropsey, Indianapolis,
Belle Dwinell, Union City,
Emma Gail, " "
Maggie Hamilton, Indianapolis.
Lizzie L. Horney, Richmond,
Samual Horney "
J: S. Irwin, Fort Wayne,
Lemuel Moss, Bloomington,
Marian A. Perkins, Evansville,
J. B. Roberts, Indianapolis.
J: L. Shearer, Fort Wayne,
Jas. H. Smart, Indianapolis,
Horace S. Tarbell, "
L. S. Thompson, Lafayette,
Frederick Treudley, Union City,
Mrs. Mary H. Treudley, Union City,
E. E. White, Lafayette,
Mrs. E. E. White, Lafayette,
W: H. Wiley, Terre Haute,
W: S. Wood, Seymour.

Iowa.

J. C. Gilchrist, Cedar Falls,
J. E. McCarty, Brooklyn,
Josiah L. Pickard, Iowa City,
C: P. Rogers, Marshalltown.

Kansas.

Allen B. Lemmon, Winfield.

Kentucky.

S. P. Lucy, Midway,
Lucius G. Marshall, Cynthiana,
Joseph Desha Pickett, Frankford,
T: C. H. Vance, Lexington.

Louisiana.

Robert M. Lusher, Lock Box 2118, New Orleans.

Maine.

Merrit C. Fernald, Orono.

Maryland.

Albert S. Cook, Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Charles H. Ames, Boston,
Anna Baright, “
T: W. Bicknell, “
J: W. Dickinson, “
W: T. **Harris**, Concord,
G: T. Littlefield, Charlestown,
Albert P. Marble, Worcester.
W: G. Nowell, Weymouth,
Francis W. Parker, Boston,
J: D. Philbrick, Asylum Station,
W: E. **Sheldon**, Boston,
A. P. Stone, Springfield,
C: O. Thompson, Worcester.

MICHIGAN.

Laura Adams, Detroit,
J: S. Copp, Hillsdale,
Elihu Burritt Fairfield Tecumseh,
W: N. Hailmann, Detroit.
W: H. Payne, Ann Arbor,
Zeno C. Spencer, Battle Creek,
Nellie Stow, Adrian.

MINNESOTA.

W: W. Folwell, Minneapolis,
D: L. Kiehle, St. Cloud,
Maria L. Sanford, Minneapolis.
Orson V. Tousley, Minneapolis,
B: F. Wright, St. Paul.

MISSOURI.

Grace C. Bibb, Columbia,
Emmons R. Booth, Kirkwood,
Jonathan Fairbanks, Springfield,
Alice L. Heath, Kirksville,
Margaret T. Henderson, Kirksville,
Edward H. Long, St. Louis,
G: L. Osborne, Warrensburg,
Mrs. Sarah V. Osborne, Warrensburg,
F. **Louis Soldan**, St. Louis,
T. R. Vickroy “ “

MONTANA TERRITORY.

W. Egbert Smith, Butte City.

NEBRASKA.

Eliza C. Morgan, Peru,
S: R. Thompson, Lincoln.

NEVADA.

Mrs. Mary H. Swift, Virginia City,
C: S. Young, Virginia City.

NEW JERSEY.

James McCosh, Princeton,
Edward A. Spring, Perth Amboy.

NEW YORK.

C: R. Abbott, Brooklyn,
Jerome Allen, Geneseo,
Mrs. John G. Allen, Rochester,
Rush E. Avery, New York,
C: A. Babcock, Fredonia,
C: W. Bardeen, Syracuse,
Jonas W. Brown, Tonawanda.
Oscar R. Burchard, Fredonia,
Frank S. Capen, Cortland,
Emily M. Coe, New York,
Lucien B. Corey, “ “
Edward Danforth, Elmira,
D. G. Eaton, Brooklyn,
H: W. Ellsworth, New York,
DeLancy Freeborn, Hornellsville,
H: T. Gillette, Schuylersville,
Neil Gilmour, Albany,
Albert C. Hale, New York,
H: E. Hays, “ “
Andrew B. Humphrey, Ithaca,
Mrs. Mary Y. Johnston, Jamestown,
James Johonnot, Ithaca,
Calista S. Jones, Jamestown,
J: Kennedy, New York,
John Kraus, “ “
Mrs. Maria Kraus “
Andrew McMillan, Utica,
Rachel L. Moore, Dunkirk,
F. B. Palmer, Fredonia,
H: R. Sanford, Middletown,
Juliett Simmons, Poland Centre,
Arthur A. Skinner, Lockport,
Winfield S. Smith, Syracuse,
J. Dorman Steele, Elmira,
Georgiana Van Aiken, New York,
Mrs. Kate W. Wallace, Westfield,
Mary R. Woodworth, Randolph,
James H. Worman, Brooklyn.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Amy M. Bradley, Wilmington.

OHIO.

Frank Aborn, Cleveland,
Elvie L. Aiken, Wilmington,
Chris. J. Albert, Germantown,
Israel W. Andrews, Marietta,
Martin R. Andrews, "
Mary C. Andrews, Akron,
OLIVER AREY, Cleveland,
Frances E. Baker, Xenia,
Eudora C. Baldwin, Urbana,
W: G. Ballantine, Oberlin,
Grove E. Barber, Hiram,
Lauretta Barnaby, Salem,
J. C. Barney, Warren,
C. W. Bennett, Piqua,
HAMPTON BENNETT, Franklin,
Laura Bissell, Salem,
Lizzie R. Boone, Salem,
D. Ross Boyd, Van Wert,
LEROY D. BROWN, Hamilton,
Walter Buell, Cleveland,
Cynthia S. Burnett, Brookfield,
JAMES J. BURNS, Columbus,
Mrs. Kate E. Burns, Columbus,
Lewis L. Campbell, Mineral Ridge,
Louisa L. Campbell, Youngstown,
Mary D. Campbell, Portsmouth,
M. S. Campbell, Youngstown,
G: A. Carnahan, Cincinnati,
C: W. Carroll, Chardon,
G: N. Carruthers, Salem,
H. J. Clark, Oberlin,
Isaac M. Clemens, Madison,
Mary Cook, Salem,
Carrie Cooper, Bridgeport,
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati,
Mattie J. Cummings, Uhrichsville,
Marie Darst, Dayton,
C. C. DAVIDSON, New Lisbon,
C: F. Dean, Ironton,
Lida Bell DeFrees, Troy,
Daniel F. De Wolf, Columbus,
Susie A. Dillin, Cleveland,
J: W. Dowd, Toledo,
Edda L. Dunlap, Danville,
BETTIE A. DUTTON, Cleveland,
Mary Eaton, Dayton,
Alston Ellis, Sandusky,
A. G. Farr, Columbus,
R. N. Fearon, East Liverpool,
Nettie Fillmore, Cincinnati,
Samuel Findley, Akron,
Mrs. Samuel Findley, Akron,
T. C. Flanegin, Pomeroy,
ALEX. FORBES, Cleveland,
Fannie E. Ford, Cincinnati,
Mrs. Kate Brearley Ford, Cleveland,
Elias Fraunfelter, Akron,
T: French, Jr., Urbana,
W: H. Garrett, Steubenville,
Mary C. Garrett, "
Alfred E. Gladding, Richwood,
James M. Greenslade, Bellevue,
Nettie M. Hamilton, Piqua,
JOHN HANCOCK, Dayton,
Mrs. John Hancock, Dayton,
Mary L. Hancock, Cincinnati,
Clara D. Henkle, Salem,
Mrs. Kate A. Henkle, Salem,
W: D. HENKLE, Salem,
Ada G. Hine, Oberlin,
Julia A. Hitchcock, Youngstown,
Emma Hughes, Hamilton,
James B. Irvin, Dayton,
A. B. Johnson, Cincinnati,
Mrs. A. B. Johnson, Cincinnati,
Edmund A. Jones, Massillon,
Mary A. Kelly, Troy,
Delia Kyle, Marion,
J. H. Lehman, Canton,
H. S. Lehr, Ada,
Candace Lhamon, Gambier,
J. F. Lloyd, Hillsboro,
C: L. Loos, Dayton,
Joseph F. Lukens, Lebanon,
Mrs. Joseph Lukens, Lebanon,
T. G. McCalmont, College Hill,
Elizabeth N. McConnell, New Lisbon,
W: H. McCoy, Cadiz,

Cora M. McDonald, Salem,
James L. McDonald. Wellsville,
Reuben McMillan, Youngstown,
Mrs. Reuben McMillan. "
Arch. M. Mattison, Berea,
H. N. Mertz. Steubenville,
Lewis Miller. Akron,
Mrs. Anna M. Mills. Crestline,
Edwin K. Mitchell, Columbus,
Elizabeth M. Moore, Warren,
Mary G. Moore, Youngstown,
Albanus A. Moulton, Rio Grande,
Edwin F. Moulton, Warren.
H. C. Muckley, Youngstown,
Carrie E. Norris, Cincinnati,
John Ogden, Worthington,
W: H. Pabodie, Wyoming.
Ann E. Parker, Rutland,
H: M. Parker, Elyria,
C: H. Payne, Delaware,
Sarah E. Pearson, Youngstown.
John B. Peaslee, Cincinnati,
T: A. Pollok, Miamisburg,
D. P. Pratt. Bridgeport,
W: H. Ray, Uhrichsville,
Florence Rayen, Youngstown,
Andrew J. Rickoff, Cleveland,
Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, Cleveland,
Willis O. Robb, College Hill,
James A. Robert, Dayton,
Hiram Sapp, Wadsworth,
J. E. Sater, Wauseon,
W. H. Scott, Athens,
Salomon Z. Sharp, Ashland,
J: Simpson, Mansfield.
W: H. Smiley, Cadiz,
Robert W. Stevenson, Columbus,
Hannah C. Stewart, Salem,
Lucia Stickney, Cincinnati,
Carrie Strawn, Salem,
A. B. Stutzman, Kent,
Margaret W. Sutherland, Mansfield,
Isaac M. Taggart, Canal Fulton,
Eli T. Tappan. Gambier,
Mrs. L. L. Tappan, "
Mattie Telford, Troy,
Clara B. Thomas, Salem,
Kate Thomas, "
H. A. Thompson, Westerville,
Percie A. Trowbridge, Cleveland.
Edward Truman, Burton,
Jacob Tuckerman, Austinburgh,
F. H. Umholtz, Leetonia,
W: G. Walker, Lima,
Hamilton Wallace, Canal Dover,
Joseph Welty, New Philadelphia,
W: A. Werner, Youngstown,
Lucy Wetmore, Salem,
Maggie Wetmore, Salem,
W: J. White, Springfield,
Esther Widner, Dayton,
C: A. Willison, Massillon,
Francis E. Wilson, Cincinnati,
J: M. Withrow, Eaton,
Anna Woodbridge, Youngstown,
O. M. Woodward, Lordstown,
J. M. Yarnell, Barnesville.

OREGON.

J. W. Strange, Roseburg.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Emma Aiken, New Brighton,
G: P. Beard, California,
T: Burnside, Philadelphia,
Ruth Burritt, "
Robert H. Carothers, Shippensburg,
C: F. Chamberlain, Meadville,
Mrs. C: F. Chamberlain, "
Joseph A. Cooper, Edinboro,
J: T. Daniel, Allegheny,
J: T. Downey, State College,
S. May Dunham, Sharon,
G: W. Fetter, Philadelphia,
Emma B. Gail, Corry,
Martin Gantz, Newcastle,
Archy D. Glenn, Kittanning,
Gustavus Guttenburg, Erie,
Robert P Holliday, Wattsburgh,
Louana Housholder, Oil City.
H: S. Jones, Erie,
Frank H. Laird, Beaver,
Dunlap J. McAdam, Washington,
Francis A. March, Easton,

LELIA E. PATRIDGE, Philadelphia,
Oella J. Patterson, New Wilmington,
S. Bradford Potter, Shippensburg,
Nathan C. Shaeffer, Kutztown,
B. F. Shaub, Lancaster,
C: O. Scrafford, Edenburg,
Celia Sherman, "
EDGAR A. SINGER, Philadelphia,
Denison C. Thomas, Mansfield,
Norman R. Thompson, Sugar Grove,
C: Twining, Union City,
A. J. Whipple, Saegertown,
JAS. P. WICKERSHAM, Harrisburgh.

RHODE ISLAND.

A. M. Gammell, Providence.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

R. Means Davis, Winnsboro,
Willard Richardson, Winnsboro.

TENNESSEE.

Will A. Cate, Maryville,
E: S. Joynes, Knoxville.

TEXAS.

Alex. Hogg, Marshall,
J. R. Malone, Dallas.

VERMONT.

A. B. Corliss, East Corinth.

WEST VIRGINIA.

T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL, Glenville.

NAMES ENROLLED AT CHAUTAUQUA,

ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY.

For explanation of small capitals and italics see p. 242.

A.

Abbot, C: R., N. Y.,
Aborn, Frank, Ohio,
Adams, Laura, Mich.,
Aikin, Elvie L., Ohio,
Aikin, Emma, Pa.,
Albert, Chris. J., Ohio,
Allen, Jerome, N. Y.,
Allen, Mrs. John G., N. Y.,
Allyn Robert, Ill.,
Ames, C: H., Mass.,
Andrews, I. W., Ohio,
Andrews, M. R., Ohio,
Andrews, Mary C., Ohio,
AREY, OLIVER, Ohio,
Avery, Rush E., N. Y.

B.

Babcock, C: A., N. Y.,
Baker, Frances E., Ohio,
Baldwin, Eudora C., Ohio,
Ballantine, W: G., Ohio,
Barber, G. E., Ohio,
Bardeen, C: W., N. Y.,
Baright, Anna, Mass.,
Barnaby, Lauretta, Ohio,
Barney, J. C., Ohio,
Beard, G: P., Pa.,
Bennett, C. W., Ohio,
BENNETT, H., Ohio,
BIBB, GRACE C., Mo.,
Bicknell, T: W., Mass.,
Bissell, Laura, Ohio,
Boone, Lizzie R., Ohio,
Booth, E. R., Mo.,
Boyd, D. R., Ohio,
Bradley Amy M., N. C.,
Brinkley, S. G., Ga.,
BROWN, G: P., Ind.,
Brown, J. W., N. Y.,
BROWN, L. D., Ohio,
Buell, Walter, Ohio,
Burchard, O. R., N. Y.,
Burnett, Cynthia S., Ohio,
BURNS, J. J., Ohio,
Burns, Mrs. Kate E., Ohio.
Burnside, T:, Pa.,
Burritt, Ruth, Pa.

Camp, D: N., Conn.,
Campbell, L. L., Ohio,
Campbell, Louisa L., Ohio,
Campbell, Mary D., Ohio,
Campbell, M. S., Ohio,
Capen, F. S., N. Y.,
Carnahan, G: A., Ohio,
Carothers, R. H., Pa.,
Carr, E. S., Cal.,
Carroll, C: W., Ohio,
Carruthers, G: N., Ohio,
Cate, W. A., Tenn.,
Chamberlain, C. F., Pa.,
Chamberlain, Mrs. C. F., Pa.,

Danforth, E:, N. Y.,
Daniel, J: T., Pa.,
Darst, Marie, Ohio,
Davidson, C. C., Ohio,
Davis, R. M., S. C.,
Dean, C: F., Ohio,
De Frees, Lida Bell, Ohio,
De Wolf, D. F., Ohio,
Dickey, L. C., Ga.,

Eaton, D. G., N. Y.,
Eaton, J., Jr., D. C.,
Eaton, Mary, Ohio,

Fairbanks, J., Mo.,
Fairfield, E. B., Mich.,
Farr, A. G., Ohio,
Fearon, R. N., Ohio,
Fernald, M. C., Me.,
Fetter, G: W., Pa.,
Fillmore, Nettie, Ohio,
Findley, S:, Ohio,
Findley, Mrs. S., Ohio,

Gail, Emma, Ind.,
Gail, Emma B., Pa.,
Gammell, A. M., R. I.,
Gantz, Martin, Pa.,
Garrett, Mary C., Ohio,
Garrett, W: H., Ohio,
Gilchrist, J. C., Iowa,
Gillette, H: F., N. Y.,
Gilmour, Neil, N. Y.,

C.
Clark, H. J., Ohio,
Clemens, I. M., Ohio,
Coe, Emily M., N. Y.,
Cook, A. S., Md.,
Cook, Mary, Ohio,
Cooper, Carrie, Ohio,
Cooper, J. A., Pa.,
Copp, J: S., Mich.,
Corey, L. B., N. Y.,
Corliss, A. B., Vt.,
Cox, I. F., Ga.,
Coy, E. W., Ohio,
Cropsey, Miss N., Ind.,
Cummings, Mattie J., Ohio.

D.
Dickinson, J: W., Mass.,
Dillin, Susie, A., Ohio,
Douglass, H: M., Ill.,
Dowd, J: W., Ohio,
Downey, J: T., Pa.,
Dunham, S. May, Pa.,
Dunlap, Edda L., Ohio,
Dutton, Bettie A., Ohio,
Dwinell, Belle, Ind.

E.
Ellis, Alston, Ohio,
Ellsworth, H: W., N. Y.

F.
Flanegin, T. C., Ohio,
Folwell, W: W., Minn.,
Forbes, Alex., Ohio,
Ford, Fannie E., Ohio,
Ford, Mrs. K. B., Ohio,
Fraunfelter, E., Ohio,
Freeborn, D. L., N. Y.,
French, T:, Jr., Ohio.

G.
Gladding, A. E., Ohio,
Glenn, A. D., Pa.,
Glenn, G. R., Ga.,
Gove, Aaron, Colo.,
Grant, H. L., Ill.,
Greenslade, J. M., Ohio,
Gregory, J: M., Ill.,
Guttenberg, G., Pa.

H.

Hailmann, W: N., Mich.,
Hale, A. C., N. Y.,
Hamilton, Maggie, Ind.,
Hamilton, Nettie M., Ohio,
HANCOCK, JOHN, Ohio,
Hancock, Mrs. John, Ohio,
Hancock, Mary L., Ohio,
Hardin, M. B., Ga.,
HARRIS, W: T., Mass.,
Hayes, H: E., N. Y.,
Haygood, Laura A., Ga.,
Heath, Alice L., Mo.,
Henderson, Margaret T., Mo.,
Hendley, Flora L., D. C.,
Henkle, Clara D., Ohio,
Henkle, Mrs. Kate A., Ohio,
HENKLE, W: D., Ohio,
Hine, Ada G., Ohio,
Hitchcock, Julia A., Ohio,
Hitz, Gertrude, D. C.,
HITZ, JOHN, D. C.,
Hogg, Alex., Texas,
Holliday, R. P., Pa.,
Horney, Lizzie L., Ind.,
Horney, Sam., Ind.,
Housholder, Louana, Pa.,
Hughes, Emma, Ohio,
Humphrey, A. B., N. Y.

I.

Irvin J. B., Ohio,
IRWIN, J: S., Ind.

J.

Johnson, A. B., Ohio,
Johnson, Mrs. A. B., Ohio,
Johnston, Mrs. M. Y., N. Y.,
Johonnot, J., N. Y.,
Jones, Calista S., N. Y.,
Jones, E. A., Ohio,
Jones. H: S., Pa.,
JOYNES, E: S., Tenn.

K.

Kelly, Mary A., Ohio,
Kennedy, J:, N. Y.,
Kiehle, D: L., Minn.,
KRAUS, JOHN, N. Y.,
Kraus, Mrs. Maria, N. Y.,
Kyle, Delia, Ohio.

L.

Lambdin, C: E., Ga.,
Laird, F. H., Pa.,
Lehman, J. H., Ohio,
Lehr, H. S., Ohio,
Lemmon, A. B., Kan.,
Lhamon, Candace, Ohio,
Littlefield, G: T., Mass.,
Lloyd, J. F., Ohio,
Long, E: H., Mo.,
Loos, C: L., Ohio,
Lucy, S. P., Ky.,
Lukens, J. F., Ohio,
Lukens, Mrs. J. F., Ohio,
Lusher, R. M., La.

M.

McAdam, D. J., Pa.,
McCalmont, T. G., Ohio,
McCarty, Brooklyn, Iowa,
McConnell, Eliz. N., Ohio,
McCosh, James, N. J.,
McCoy, W: H., Ohio,
McDonald, Cora, M., Ohio,
McDonald, J. L., Ohio,
McMillan, A., N. Y.,
McMILLAN, R., Ohio,
McMILLAN, MRS. R., Ohio,
Malone, J. R., Texas,
MARBLE, A. P., Mass.,
March, F. A., Pa.,
Marshall, L. G., Ky.,
MARSHALL, T: M., W. Va.,
Mattison, A. M., Ohio,
Mertz, H. N., Ohio,
MILLER, LEWIS, Ohio,
Mills, Mrs. A. M., Ohio,
Mitchell, E. K., Ohio,
Moore, D: H., Colo.,
Moore, Eliz. M., Ohio,
Moore, Mary G., Ohio,
Moore, Rachel L., N. Y.,
Morgan, Eliza C., Nebr.,
Moss, Lemuel, Ind.,
Moulton, A. A., Ohio,
Moulton, E. F., Ohio,
Muckley, H. C., Ohio.

Norris, Carrie E., Ohio,
Northrop, B. G., Conn.,

Ogden, John, Ohio,
Orr, G. J., Ga.,

Pabodie, W: H., Ohio,
Palmer, G. S., D. C.,
Palmer, T. B., N. Y.,
Parker, Ann E., Ohio,
Parker, F. W., Mass.,
Parker, H: M., Ohio,
PATRIDGE, LELIA E., Pa.,
Patterson, Oella J., Pa.,
Payne, C: H., Ohio,
Payne, W: H., Mich.,
Pearson, Sarah E., Ohio.

Ray, W: H., Ohio,
Rayen, Florence, Ohio,
Rheem, C. B., D. C.,
RICHARDS, Z., D. C.,
Richardson, W., S. C.,
RICKOFF, A. J., Ohio,
RICKOFF, MRS. REBECCA D., Ohio.

Sanford, Maria L., Minn.,
Sanford, H: R., N. Y.,
Sapp, Hiram, Ohio,
Sater, J. E., Ohio,
Schaeffer, N. C., Pa.,
Schimmelfennig, Helene, D. C.,
Schreiner, Mary K., D. C.,
Scott, W. H., Ohio,
Scrafford, C: O., Pa.,
SETZEPFAND, A., Ga.,
Sharp, S. Z., Ohio,
Shaub, B. F., Pa.,
Shearer, J: L., Ind.,
SHELDON, W: E., Mass.,
Sherman, Celia, Pa.,
Shields, Mary S., D. C.
Shields, Sarah V. A., D. C.,
Simmons, Juliett, N. Y.,
Simpson, J:, Ohio,
SINGER, EDGAR A., Pa.,
Skinner, A. A., N. Y.,

N.
Nowell, W: G., Mass.

O.
Osborne, G: L., Mo.,
Osborne, Mrs. Sarah V., Mo.

P.
PEASLEE, J: B., Ohio,
Perkins, Marian A., Ind.,
Philbrick, J: D., Mass.,
Pickett, J. D., Ky.,
Pickard, J. L., Iowa,
Pollock, Mrs. Z., D. C.,
Pollok, T: A., Ohio,
Potter, B. S., Pa.,
Pratt, D. P., Ohio,
Pumphrey, Nellie F., D. C.

R.
Rivers, E. R., Ala.,
Robb, W. O., Ohio,
Robert, J. A., Ohio,
Roberts, J. B., Ind.,
Rogers, C. P., Iowa,
Rowe, Mary E., D. C.

S.
Slade, J. P., Ill.,
SMART, J. H., Ind.,
Smiley, W: H., Ohio,
Smith, W. E., Montana,
Smith, W. S., N. Y.,
SOLDAN, F. LOUIS, Mo.,
Spencer, Z. C., Mich.,
Steele, J. D., N. Y.,
STEVENSON, R. W., Ohio,
SPRING, EDWARD A., N. J.,
Stewart, Hannah C., Ohio,
Stickney, Lucia, Ohio,
Stone, A. P., Mass.,
STONE, MRS. M. A., Conn.,
Stow, Nellie, Mich.,
Strange, J. W., Oregon,
Strawn, Carrie, Ohio,
Stutzman, A. B., Ohio,
Sutherland, Miss M. W., Ohio,
Swett, J: P., Cal.,
Swift, Mrs. M. H., Nev.

T.

Taggart, I. M., Ohio,
Tappan, E. T., Ohio,
Tappan, Mrs. L. L., Ohio,
Tarbell, H. S., Ind.,
Telford, Mattie, Ohio,
Thomas, Clara B., Ohio,
Thomas, D. C., Pa.,
Thomas, Kate, Ohio,
Thompson, C: O., Mass.,
Thompson, H. A., Ohio.
THOMPSON, L. S., Ind.,
Thompson, N. R., Pa.,
Thompson, S. R., Nebr.,
Tousley, O. V., Minn.,
Treudley, F:, Ind.,
Treudley, Mrs. M. H., Ind.,
Trowbridge, Percie A., Ohio,
Truman, E:, Ohio,
Tuckerman, J., Ohio,
Twining, C:, Pa.

U.

Umholtz, F. H., Ohio.

V.

Vaile, E. O., Ill.,
Van Aikin, Georgiana, N. Y.,
Vance, T: C. H., Ky.,
Vickroy, T. R., Mo.

W.

Waggoner, J. F., Ill.,
Walker, G: W., Ohio,
Wallace, Ham., Ohio,
Wallace, Mrs. K. W., N. Y.,
Ware, N. E., Ga.,
Welty, Joseph, Ohio,
Werner, W. A., Ohio,
Wetmore, Lucy, Ohio,
Wetmore, Maggie, Ohio,
Whipple, A. J., Ohio,
WHITE, E. E., Ind.,
White, Mrs. E. E., Ind.,
White, W: J., Ohio,
WICKERSHAM, J. P., Pa.,
WIDNER, ESTHER, Ohio,
Wiley, W: H., Ind.,
Willison, C: A., Ohio,
Wilson, F. E., Ohio,
WILSON, J. O., D. C.,
Withrow, J: M., Ohio,
Woodbridge, Annie, Ohio,
Woodward, O. M., Ohio,
Woodworth, Mary R., N. Y.,
Wood, W: S., Ind.,
Worman, J. H., N. Y.,
Wright, B: F., Minn.

Y.

Yarnell, J. M., Ohio,
Young, C: S., Nev.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Proceedings for 1880.

OLD BOARD.

The Board met at 8 P. M., at Headquarters at the Palace Hotel. There were present the President, J. ORMOND WILSON; the Secretary, W: D. HENKLE; the Treasurer, ELI T. TAPPAN; J. H. SMART, J. P. WICKERSHAM, E. E. WHITE, J: W. DICKINSON, J. C. GILCHRIST, G: W. FETTER, D: N. CAMP, and GRACE C. BIBB. Mr. DICKINSON was chosen to represent Massachusetts.

The Treasurer reported receipts to the amount of $905.25 in addition to $100 received from the Philadelphia Teachers' Institute for a Life-Directorship.

The Secretary read the letter from the Philadelphia Teachers' Institute conveying the $100 as published in the Proceedings for 1879. Remarks as to the propriety of receiving as a Life-Director an association presumably perpetual were made by W: D. HENKLE, J. P. WICKERSHAM, and ELI T. TAPPAN. J. C. GILCHRIST moved that the money be received and the thanks of the Board be tendered to the Association. After discussion this motion was withdrawn and on motion of E. T. TAPPAN, J. P. WICKERSHAM and E. E. WHITE were appointed a Committee to report an Amendment to the Constitution admitting associations as life-directors.

A report was made that there remain unsold and undistributed 506 volumes of the Proceedings of 1879.

On motion of J. H. SMART it was decided that any person or association who has or may hereafter become a Life-Director shall be entitled to receive a full set of the volumes of Proceedings and Addresses of the Association so far as the volumes can be supplied, provided that 10 copies shall be retained by the Association, of each volume.

J. P. WICKERSHAM from the committee on amendments to the Constitution reported an amendment which was afterwards adopted by the General Association without a dissenting vote. See Constitution and Proceedings of the General Association.

On motion of E. T. TAPPAN it was decided that any person purchasing a whole set of the Proceedings may have each volume of which the Association has more than 50 copies for half the published price.

J. H. SMART, J. P. WICKERSHAM, and J: W. DICKINSON were appointed a committee to audit the accounts of the Secretary and Treasurer.

Adjourned.

The Board met at 9 A. M. Thursday. T: W. BICKNELL from the Committee appointed at the last meeting of the Department of Superintendence at Washington reported a plan for the organization of a National Council of Education. The report was received and referred to the General Association for adoption. See Proceedings of the General Association for this report.

Bills from EDWARD DANFORTH and J. C. GILCHRIST, $5.00, were allowed.

On motion of T: W. BICKNELL, Saturday, after the adjournment of the Association, was selected for excursions to Niagara and other parts.

Adjourned.

NEW BOARD.

The New Board met in the Amphitheatre at 8½ A. M., Thursday, July 15, 1880, J. H. Smart, President-elect, in the Chair.

E. T. Tappan, A. J. Rickoff, R. W. Stevenson, E. E. White, and J. A. Cooper were appointed a Committee on Publication.

Propositions to meet in 1881 at Dallas, Texas, Atlanta, Ga., Lincoln, Nebr., Chautauqua, Saratoga, and Lake George, N. Y., were made respectively by J. R. Malone, G. J. Orr, S: R. Thompson, J: M. Gregory, T: W. Bicknell, and Edward Danforth.

On motion of T: W. Bicknell, Atlanta was selected on condition that proper railway arrangements can be made and provided no epidemic be prevailing in the South.

Adjourned.

The Board met at the Palace Hotel at 5 P. M. T: W. Bicknell reported the names of the persons selected by the different Departments and also by the General Association for the National Council of Education. See Proceedings of the General Association.

On motion of A. P. Marble, the President, First Vice-President, Secretary, and Treasurer be an Executive Committee to make arrangements for the next meeting.

J. O. Wilson moved that the next meeting be held the first week in July, 1881. After some discussion it was finally decided to meet July 19, 1881.

Adjourned.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

In Account with E. T. Tappan,

To amount received through the Secretary from former Treasurer	$527 25
" " " from the Secretary on Memberships after Philadelphia meeting. See names on pp. 237–8, Phil. Vol.	112 00
" " " from Secretary on Life Memberships: Rachel Gordon $20.00, R. McMillan $18.00, A. Setzepfand $20.00, W: E. Sheldon $10.00, Edward Shippen $20.00, N. A. Calkins, $18.00, A. Armstrong $18.00	124 00
" " " from Secretary on volumes sold by him, F.D. Davis, J. E. Sater, H. A. Thompson, J. W. Simonds, A. B. Corliss, R. M. Mitchell, W: H. Ruffner, Joseph Welty, G. E. Barber, S. R. Thompson, Alfred Stebbins, J. V. Coombs, W. B. Catching, and R. C. Story, each $2.00, J. L. Pickard $12.50, J: Hancock, $12.50, J. Hitz $4.00, J. P. Wickersham $62.50, and Ch. T. Dillingham $8.00	127 50
" " collected at Chautauqua	14 50
" total receipts	905 25
By amount paid Secretary	905 25

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

In Account with W: D. Henkle, *Dr.*

To Expense of Philadelphia Proceedings	$904 83
" Incidental Expenses	58 44
" Balance due in July, 1879	429 62
	$1392 89

Contra.

By Cash received from Treasurer, E. T. TAPPAN	$905 25
Balance due W: D. HENKLE	487 64

REPORT OF AUDITING COMMITTEE.

The undersigned have examined the foregoing accounts of the Secretary and Treasurer of the National Educational Association, with the vouchers therefor, and find the same to be correct, and a balance of 58.02 to be due W: D. HENKLE on account of Publication Committee, in addition to $429.62 of last year.

J. H. SMART,
J. P. WICKERSHAM,
J. W. DICKINSON,
Auditing Committee.

July 13, 1880.

VOLUMES OF PROCEEDINGS UNSOLD,

IN THE CUSTODY OF THE TREASURER, JULY 8, 1880.

Proceedings of	1858,	10 volumes	Price per volume,	$ .50
" "	1859,	12 "	" " "	.50
" "	1863,	16 "	" " "	.50
" "	1865,	115 "	" " "	.50
" "	1866,	118 "	" " "	.50
" "	1872,	36 "	" " "	1.75
" "	1873,	195 "	" " "	1.50
" "	1874,	403 "	" " "	1.50
" "	1875,	28 "	" " "	1.50
" "	1876,	411 "	" " "	2.00
" "	1877,	317 "	" " "	2.00
" "	1879,	506 "	" " "	2.00

Calendar of Meetings.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1857.—*PHILADELPHIA, PA.*
Organized.
1858.—*CINCINNATI, OHIO.*
Z. Richards, *Pres.*, J. W. Bulkley, *Sec.*, A. J. Rickoff, *Treas.*
1859.—*WASHINGTON, D. C.*
A. J. Rickoff, *Pres.*, J. W. Bulkley, *Sec.*, C. S. Pennell, *Treas.*
1860.—*BUFFALO, N. Y.*
J. W. Bulkley, *Pres.*, Z. Richards, *Sec.*, O. C. Wight, *Treas.*
1861.—*No Session.*
1862.—*No Session.*
1863.—*CHICAGO, ILL.*
John D. Philbrick, *Pres.*, Jas. Cruikshank, *Sec.*, O. C. Wight, *Treas.*
1864.—*OGDENSBURG, N. Y.*
W: H. Wells, *Pres.*, David N. Camp, *Sec.*, Z. Richards, *Treas.*
1865.—*HARRISBURG, PA.*
S. S. Greene, *Pres.*, Jas. Cruikshank, *Sec.*, Z. Richards, *Treas.*
1866.—*INDIANAPOLIS, IND.*
J. P. Wickersham, *Pres.*, S. H. White, *Sec.*, S. P. Bates, *Treas.*
1867.—*No Session.*
1868.—*NASHVILLE, TENN.*
J: M. Gregory, *Pres.*, L. Van Bokkelen, *Sec.*, Jas. Cruikshank, *Treas.*
1869.—*TRENTON, N. J.*
L. Van Bokkelen, *Pres.*, W: E. Crosby, *Sec.*, A. L. Barber, *Treas.*
1870.—*CLEVELAND, OHIO.*
D. B. Hagar. *Pres.*, A. P. Marble, *Sec.*, W: E. Crosby, *Treas.*

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

1871.—*ST. LOUIS, MO.*
J. L. Pickard, *Pres.*, W: E. Crosby, *Sec.*, John Hancock, *Treas.*
1872.—*BOSTON, MASS.*
E. E. White, *Pres.*, S. H. White, *Sec.*, John Hancock, *Treas.*
1873.—*ELMIRA, N. Y.*
B. G. Northrop, *Pres.*, S. White, *Sec.*, John Hancock, *Treas.*
1874—*DETROIT, MICH.*
S. H. White, *Pres.*, A. P. Marble, *Sec.*, John Hancock, *Treas.*
1875.—*MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.*
W: T. Harris, *Pres.*, W. R. Abbot, *Sec.*, A. P. Marble, *Treas.*
1876.—*BALTIMORE, MD.*
W: F. Phelps, *Pres.*, W: D. Henkle, *Sec.*, A. P. Marble, *Treas.*
1877.—*LOUISVILLE, KY.*
M. A. Newell, *Pres.*, W: D. Henkle, *Sec.*, J. Ormond Wilson, *Treas.*
1878.—*No Session.*
1879.—*PHILADELPHIA PA.*
John Hancock, *Pres.*, W: D. Henkle, *Sec.*, J. Ormond Wilson, *Treas.*
1880.—*CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.*
J. Ormond Wilson, *Pres.*, W: D. Henkle, *Sec.*, E. T. Tappan, *Treas.*

OFFICERS FOR 1880-81.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

James H. Smart, Indianapolis, Indiana, - President.
Gustavus J. Orr, Georgia, - - First Vice-President.
W: D. Henkle, Salem, Ohio, - - - - Secretary.
Eli T. Tappan, Gambier, Ohio, - - - Treasurer.
[For other Vice-Presidents, and Counsellors see p. 60.]

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

A. P. Marble, Worcester, Mass., - - President.
N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y., - Vice-President.
S: Findley, Akron, Ohio, - - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Jerome Allen, Geneseo, N. Y., - - - President.
G. L. Osborne, Warrenburg, Mo., - - Vice-President.
Geo. P. Brown, Terre Haute, Ind., - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

O. V. Tousley, Minneapolis, Minn., - - President.
R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, Ohio, - Vice-President.
J. B. Roberts, Indianapolis, Ind., - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

Lemuel Moss, Bloomington, Ind., - - - President.
J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Iowa, - - Vice-President.
John S. Copp, Hillsdale, Mich., - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Emerson E. White, Lafayette, Ind., - - President.
Wm. W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn., - Vice-President.
S: R. Thompson, Lincoln, Nebr., - - - Secretary.

COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

Thos. W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass., - - President.
James McCosh, Princeton, N. J., - - Vice-President.
F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo., - - - Secretary.
J. P. Wickersham, Harrisburgh, Pa., E. E. White, Lafayette, Ind., Anna C. Brackett, New York, N. Y., and Wm. H. Ruffner, Richmond, Va., - - Executive Committee.

ANUAL MEETING

OV THE

SPELING-REFORM ASOSIATION.

First Day's Proceedings.

The anual meeting waz held at Chautauqua, N. Y., in conection with the National Educational Asosiation, July 15 and 16, 1880.

The first session waz held in the Children'z Templ, Prof. F. A. **MARCH**, ov Lafayette Colej, Easton, Pa., prezidіng.

Mr. **MELVIL DUI**, ov Boston, Secreteri, not being prezent, on motion ov Prof. **CARUTHERZ**, of the Shippensburg, Pa., State Normal Scul, Mr. T. R. **VICKROY**, editor ov the Fonetic Techer, St. Louis, Mo., waz chozen Secreteri *pro tem.*

The Prezident, Prof. F. A. **MARCH**, then deliverd the following

OPENING ADDRESS.

We congratulate each other to-day upon another hapy year.

At our last aniversary the sumary of events which was made in the opening adres, was much ocupied with discusions, resolutions, petitions, memorials and other preliminary work. Opinions in favor of reform wer read from authorities in filology, education and social science, **MAX MUELLER**, Dr. **MORRIS**, Bishop **THIRLWALL**, Professors **HADLEY**, **WHITNEY**, and **TRUMBULL**, **CHARLES SUMNER**, **W. E. GLADSTONE**, and others. An account was givn of the action in favor of the reform by the National Union of Elementary Teachers, representing 10,000 teachers in England and Wales; and of the action of the American Philological Associations, the American Institute of Instruction, the National Educational Association, the Department of Public Instruction in Chicago, the State Teachers' Associations of Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, New Jersey, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Wisconsin, Missouri, Virginia. Action of the State legislatures was described, and the reports of their Comitees.

Various publications in favor of the reform wer also mentioned, books, articles in magazines and the transactions of lerned Societies, and more numerous contributions to the newspapers and educational journals. In view of all these, it was then declared that the air was ful of hope. We wer obliged however to confes that we coud not boast of much succes in bringing improved speling into actual use.

This year the center of interest has been in the new speling of the newspapers and periodicals.

This Association has an "alfabet of the future" with new types, for enthusiasts to use, and as a guide for all reformers. The illustration and propagation of this alfabet has been a prominent purpose in the *Fonetic Teacher*, which has been publisht monthly by our Director for the Southwest, Mr. T. R. VICKROY, of St. Louis, and has an extensiv circulation. We ought to help it all we can.

It has also several stages of speling without new types.

1. Beginers ar advised to drop the final *e* of *hav*, *giv*, and *liv*.

2. Then they can try the eleven words of the Philological Association; *ar*, *catalog*, *definit*, *gard*, *giv*, *hav*, *infinit*, *liv*, *tho*, *thru*, *wisht*.

3. For the stronger in the faith there ar the "five new rules."

(1.) Omit *a* from the digraf *ea* when pronounst as *e* short, as in hed, helth, etc. (2.) Omit silent final *e* after a short vowel, as in hav, giv, etc. (3.) Write *f* for *ph* in such words as alfabet, fantom, etc. (4.) When a word ends with a dubl leter, omit the last, as in shal, clif, eg, etc. (5.) Change *ed* final to *t* wher it has the sound of *t*, as in lasht, imprest, etc.

And we hav urged everybody to begin at any point they please, and go as far as they please, if they only go in the right direction.

These recomendations hav been receivd with special favor by printers, and they wer erly adopted by some of the organs of the craft. The Electrotyper, of Chicago, led the way with the eleven words. The Library Journal was in the van with "catalog." Many of the newspapers freely admited ocasional articles in amended speling of various kinds, but the great popular journals naturaly hesitated to adopt any new spelings as their own, however strongly they advocated reform in general.

The Chicago Tribune was the first to make the plunge. On the second day of September in the year of our LORD one thousand eight hundred and seventy-nine, this great progresiv representativ paper of the Northwest apeard in amended speling thruout.

On the 17th of September the Home Journal of New York also apeard spelt thruout in acordance with the folowing rules:

1.—Drop *ue* at the end of words like dialogue, catalogue, where the preceding vowel is short. Thus spel demagog, pedagog, epilog, synagog, etc. Change tongue for tung. When the preceding vowel is long, as in prorogue, vogue, disembogue, rogue, retain final letters as at present.

2.—Drop final *e* in such words as definite, infinite, favorite, where the preceding vowel is short. Thus spell opposit, preterit, hypocrit, requisit, etc. When the preceding vowel is long as in polite, finite, invite, unite, etc., retain present form unchanged.

3.—Drop final *te* in words like quartette, coquette, cigarette. Thus spell cigaret, roset, epaulet, vedet, gazet, etc.

4.—Drop final *me* in words like programme. Thus spell program, oriflam, gram, etc.

5.—Change *ph* for *f* in words like phantom, telegraph, phase. Thus spell alfabet, paragraf, filosofy, fonetic, fotograf, etc.

P. S.—No change in proper names.

The Utica Herald, the Toledo Blade, the Burlington Hawkeye, the Anthony Journal, and many other newspapers hav folowed. Besides those who proclaim their changes, some ar quietly changing a few words; to apease their scholarly conscience, I suppose; and saying nothing. Thus the Springfield Republican of Massachusetts uses *etiquet* and *program.* Of the newspapers and periodicals which admit particular articles in improved speling should be mentioned the Independent of New York, which has bought new types, and is printing a series of articles with them from eminent filolojists, the New-England Journal of Education, and the Princeton Review. It is said that more than 200 journals and periodicals in this country ar inovating more or less.

If I judjd by the papers which I see, I shud gues that prety nearly all the diocese of our enthusiastic and indefatigabl Director for the Southwest, especialy Missouri, Kansas, and Arkansas, had mended their ways; but ther ar many papers which I do not see, and I fear they may be, some of them, going on in the old way in spite of the Fonetic Techer. The Pres Asociations in Missouri and Arkansas show a lively interest in the mater. They hav eloquent speeches and admirabl resolutions at their Conventions. The Missouri Pres Asociation, meeting at Sedalia in May, unanimously past the folowing resolutions:

Hweraz, the iregyularitiz ov Inglish orthografi ar a great obstacl tu the progres ov the pepl, and

Hweraz, Silent leterz alone ad about 25 per cent. tu the cost ov ol riting and printing; and

Hweraz, Editorz, statesmen, scolarz, techerz, and filanthropists thruout the Inglish-speking world ar making ernest eforts tu amend and simplifi our speling; therfor be it resolvd bi the Misuri editorz in convenshun asembled; that

1. We hartili simpathize with the ernest eforts hwich ar being put forth to simplifi Inglish orthografi.
2. We wil aid and encurej wun anuther tu begin and mak such grajual chanjez in speling az ar recomended bi the American Filological Asoshiashun and the Speling-Reform Asoshiashun.

Thus far the editors of tbe reforming papers expres themselvs as satisfied with the way in which their readers take the mater. The Home Journal made the boldest venture. It is the American journal of Society, the organ and manual of high life. Its changes clip the curent technicalities of etiquet and esthetics. Yet the editor says that not one of his readers has ever written "Stop my paper or stop that speling." During the whole experiment he has receivd but two protests, and both of those wer anonymous; while expresions of aprobation hav been frequent and cordial. The editor finaly sent out a circular asking for opinions, and printed a broadside of responses in favor of the movement from 100 representativ men, 25 presidents of leading coleges, eminent poets, preachers, scientists, and the like. The Chicago Tribune has publisht a similar broadside, and the New-England Journal of Education has printed colections of opinions from its readers in several of its isues. A great aray of authoritativ names has thus been presented to the public as favoring some sort of reform. A few opinions ar adverse to this, that, or the other particular change suposed to be near the hearts of the reformers. That is a mater of course. One or two ar ded against all atempts to improve the speling; "Language is a growth," they say, as if that were a spel to warn off reformers.

"Language is a growth" like vegetables, I suppose, or children. Ar things that grow not to be cultivated, or educated? The first work of man was to dres a garden, and his highest work ever since has been to shape the growth of his children. Growth and culture cannot surely be dissociated in the minds of American teachers, wherever else sentiments of materialistic evolution may prevail. But what if language is a growth? The visibl signs for it, the written words ar a diferent mater. They ar inventions, if ever anything was; and hav been, and ar to be improved like all labor-saving machinery.

Some one also repeats the flout that our great-great-grandchildren may posibly see amended speling in use. In so far as that is a *bon mot* we all smile at it. It is ungracious to withhold that response when any one is willing to be funy for us. But when it is repeated as tho ther wer sense in it, one cannot help remembering that in so far as it suggests that speling is not improving, and cannot be at once improved, the suggestion is wholy baseles; thousands of words hav been improved in our day. In so far as it reminds us that perfect speling is a remote posibility, we may remember that in that respect it is like perfect steam engines, or any other perfect machinery. The difficulty of making things perfect is no reason for not improving them as fast as we can.

These movements in the periodicals which hav adopted improved spelings, hav naturaly been accompanied with much coment and discusion. Many able articles in favor of the reform hav apeard, two in Scribner's Monthly, by Professor LOUNSBURY, of Yale, others in the Atlantic Monthly, the Independent, the Chicago Inter-Ocean, Interior and Alliance, the St. Louis Fonetic Techer, and elsewhere. The movement in our Coleges is hardly inferior in hopefulnes to that in the pres. The history of the reform at the University of Illinois and at Oberlin seems to indicate that wherever any ernest member of the Faculty of a good Western Colege wil take the lead the whole institution substantialy wil join the reform. If this be tru, very great progres can hardly be long delayd.

The memorial to Congres asking for a Commission, has received favorabl consideration from the Comitee of Education and Labor. April 27, 1880, Mr. BALLOU, of Rhode Island, reported

A BILL

Tu Constitute a Comishun tu report on the amendment ov the orthografi of public documents.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House ov Representatives ov the United States ov America, in Congres assembled, That a comission is hereby constituted, tu consist ov seven comissioners tu be apointed by the President, who shal examin the orthografi used in the public documents and in the public schools ov the District ov Columbia, and inquire how much its defects increas the cost ov the public printing, and how far they ar an impediment tu the acquisition ov the English language and tu ejucation, and inquire what amendments in orthografi, if eni, may be easili introdust intu the public documents and the schools ov the District ov Columbia, and accepted in examinations for the civil service, and whether it is expedient tu move the Government of Great Britain tu unite in constituting a joint comission tu consider such amendments; and the comission shal report to Congres at its next session.

[*April* 27, 1880.—Read twice, referred to the Committee on Education and Labor, and ordered to be printed].

The Comitee reported in favor of the bill and they expres confidence that it wil pas when it shal be reacht.

In England much has been done during the year. We shal hear from Mr. JONES, our Vice-President at Liverpool, that an "English Spelling-Reform Association" is now fuly organized, and has great names among its oficers and suporters. Among them ar GLADSTONE, DARWIN, TENNYSON, the LORD BISHOP OF EXETER, SIR CHARLES REED, Chairman of the School Board for London, sundry members of Parliament, professors in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, the president and ex-presidents of the Philological Society. They hav their salaried Secretary, and isue a monthly journal. They hope to obtain speedy action from Parliament.

Meantime the Philological Society of England has at last taken up the reform in ernest. It has apointed a Comitee to report a list of the words in which etymology or history is falsified or obscured by the present speling. This list wil contain some thousands of words, they say. We shal hav it in a few weeks. The Comitee of the American Philological Association wil doutles be abl to aprove it, and so to add a large number of new words to the eleven alredy recomended by them for immediate use.

The progres of the reform is rapid. Thre or four years ago our scholars stept to the front to meet ridicule and perhaps reproach in behalf of the remote future. Last year we talkt of hope. This year it is a serious question whether imediate duty does not pres hard upon us. We hav been content to be a loose Association, meeting now and then and raising our voices, crying in the wilderness. Ought we not to attempt more, to raise money to put lecturers in the field, to circulate documents, to support a journal and a secretary.

It seems as tho the right man and the right sort of a journal might do wonders for the reform.

But the field in which there is most urgent need of workers, is the infant school, the primary school. Millions of children ar lerning to read and trying to lern to spel in the old way. Their cries following the sun like the morning drumbeat of which Mr. Webster has told us, encircle the earth with an unbroken strain of the wails of English children.

Dr. J. M. GREGORY, prezident of the Illinois Industrial Universiti, waz then introdust. Hiz theme was the Speling Reform Demanded by the Nineteenth Centuri. He ilustrated hiz subject by the great work don for humaniti during this senturi in the inventionz and apliansez hwich render the elevation ov the rase posibl. He adverted tu the great obstacl our absurd speling iz tu the teaching ov one hundred millionz ov English-speaking peple thruout the world. Besidez, we ar impozing this great burden upon the adult population hu imigrate tu our shorez, and ar making them lern an absurd speling hwich is no gide tu pronunsiation, the thing ov most importans tu them tu lern to spek the langwej. The missioneri hu goez among the ignorant tu disseminate Cristian principlz iz bafled and ofn defeated by dificultiz arizing out ov speling, and thus the resoursez of the Cristian world ar wasted. The Doctor advocated a moderet reform az a begining, such az iz recomended and practist by a veri larj part ov the comuniti. He ridiculd the absurditi ov the asertion that our speling cannot be reformd, adverting tu the chanjez that hav bin made during our own day; such as droping *k* and *u* from such words az *music* and *honor*. Az the begining ov the reform had bin made and the proses ov reform had actuali begun, he insisted that the muvment wud gather strength in geometric ratio, and that soon the old speling wud colaps, and then thez unbelieverz in the speling reform wud say, "I told yu so!"

The speker waz frequentli greeted with aplauz, and his adres carid conviction to al but thoz hu ar maild agenst conviction by a fals sentimentalism, and prefer absurditi to truth.

Thez spekers wer folod by Mr. Z. Richardz, ov Washington, D. C., hu claimd to be the first speling reformer, having begun in 1844. He detaild a plan ov teaching reading by a fonetic method, by hwich the subject waz taut in one-forth the time, and claimd that fonetic speling wud reduce it tu one-sixteenth ov the time usuali recwired for this end.

At the sujestion ov E. O. Vaile, ov the Chicago High Scul, a number ov personz prezent joind the Asosiation, paying over their dolar tu the secreteri. After some miselaneus biznes, the Asosiation adjurnd to meet with the General Asosiation at 9 o'clock tu-moro.

Adjurnd.

Second Day's Proceedings.

The secund session ov the Speling-Reform Association was held in the Amfitheater, Prof. March preziding, and T. R. Vickroy acting az secreteri.

Mr. W. G. Ballantine, Professor ov Hebrew in Oberlin (O.) Colej, was then introdust, and red the following paper upon

THE DUTI OV OUR COLEJEZ TOWARD THE SPELING REFORM.

Civilization iz ever advansing. The human rase iz tu-day fisicali, mentali, and morali beter of than it waz before. But progres meanz constant reform. If progres iz tu continu, everi new year must "ring out a slowli dying cauz," and "ring in the nobler modez ov life, with sweeter manerz, purer lawz." No peple can pres forward toward the thingz that ar before, which doez not forget the things that ar behind.

To the student ov histori, the orijin, struglz, and victori ov reform ar familyar. He expects and desirez the frecwent rise ov new reformz. He perceivz that English and American histori iz but the record ov an uninterupted sucsession ov reformz, nobli fought for and gloriousli establisht. But tu the unthinking, each reform iz a holi unforeseen and most unplezant anoyans, ridiculus at its inseption, vulgar and vexatious in its progres, and understud onli when victorius.

From the nature ov the case, everi reform must meet and overcom a serten amount ov opozition. But we hu ar engajd in the efort to reform the speling ov the English langwej may derive satisfaction from the reflection that no reform ov such magnitude ever had so few obstaclz tu meet. It may be unhesitatingli afirmd that effort in this direction wil yield a vaster rezult in ameliorating the condition of mankind than the same amount of enerji expended in eni other maner.

No one hu wil reflect can dout that *milionz ov yearz* ov human labor ar wasted anuali in the unsucsesful efort tu lern our hieroglific speling; and thez yearz ar wasted mostli by bright boyz and girlz huz mindz ar al awake, redi to be interested in birdz, and flowerz, and stonez, and starz, anxious tu lisen tu histori, glad tu comit poetri,—redi, in short, tu lern al the fairi talez of siens and the long rezult ov time, hwile we can think ov no beter way ov ocupying them than tu keep them in after scul becauz they don't remember that *receipt* haz a *p* in it, hwile *deceit* hazn't, and that *busi* spelz *biz* in *business*. We luk with horor at the racs and thumscrewz hwich ar stil prezervd in the muzeumz ov Europe, but the mersiful jenerationz ov the future, "Hwen human statute shal hav purjd the jentl weal," wil feel just so about Webster'z Speling-Buk.

Hapili for us al, this monstrous evil iz remarkabli open tu atac. It iz not intrencht in eni vicious tendensi ov human nature. It iz not seriousli involvd with great pecuniari interests. No particular clas ov citizenz ar identified with it. Compar for a moment speling-reform with other great cotemporari reformz. Take the revision ov our English version ov the Holi Scripturez. Here iz a buk venerated by milionz az divine, huz everi frase is halowd by a thouzand sacred asosiationz. Pure faith and sentiment shrink from eni chanj; narones and dogmatism fear for their suport. Yet a revision iz in progres, the buks of the N. T. ar promist for publication in October, and without dout the use ov the new revision wil becom rapidli jeneral.

Take the abolition of slaveri. A vast pecuniari interest and a social organization stud in the way. Take the temperans reform. Human avaris and human apetite, hwich onli the new spiritual birth can eradicate, opose us there. And so in sivil-servis reform, personal ambition withstandz us.

Now, opozition tu the reform ov our speling springz mainli from two or at most thre sorsez.

(1.) I might mention the natural dislike ov the trubl ov making eni chanj in a familiar instrument ov daily use. This dislike ov trubl wil greatli retard the reform, and wil compel its frendz tu be veri patient in the sucsesiv steps. But it can du nothing more than retard.

(2.) The deep-seated prejudis that eni defect of redines in our prezent speling iz an infalibl mark ov ignorans and vulgariti.

(3.) Fear lest a chanjd orthografi wud hide etymoloji and so rob wordz ov the richnes ov historic asosiationz and their delicate expresivnes.

It might apear that speling-reform shud begin in our primeri sculz. We hav alredi som fonetic text-buks, and others might ezili be prepard, so that for the first thre or four yearz at least our scul children shud hear nothing ov silent leterz or ambiguous signs. But a consideration ov the nature ov the opozition tu the reform wil pruv that our colejez must take the lead. The almost relijious reverens with hwich the mas ov our peple regard the reseivd speling has ofn bin remarkt upon and ridiculed. In fact, ov al posibl smal blunderz none wud leav the smart ov a keener shame to one ov us than tu hav inadvertentli spelt deceit *deceipt*, or tu hav spelt receipt *receit*. We ar al perfectli awar that the final rut in thez two wordz iz identical, the signification the same, the histori the same, the pronunsiation the same. No one cud giv eni satisfactori reazon for the diferens in speling, and yet if during our sesionz one ov us shud hav ocasion tu rite the two wordz on the blacbord and shud put the *p* intu the rong one, the insident wud be rememberd and laft over for a long hwile tu com. The marvel of this uncwestioning reverens for our speling iz that if a cwestion *iz* ever askt, no reazon, not even a bad one, can be givn.

When Pompey the great, with sacrilejious feet, forst his way intu the holi ov holiz ov the templ at Jerusalem, he waz astonisht not tu find the imaje ov an *ass* hwich heathen mocerz ov the Jewz had asserted tu be there. The shrine ov English orthografi at hwich milionz tu-day worship and sacrifize thair children doez not so disapoint the investigator.

Only the colej can break down this superstition. The colejez ar the crown ov our educational system. They ar the court of last apeal in intelectual materz. Onli the king ov the Sandwich Islandz cud break down the acurst system ov taboo. Eni inferior man mereli dasht himself agenst it tu perish. But when hiz majesti walkt boldli and sat down tu diner with hiz wivez a shout ov relief went up from al hiz subjects. The spel ov enchantment waz broken.

So in our present curious bondaje. The primeri teacher hu departs from the orthografi ov Webster and Worcester iz lost. The private individual hu strayz from the ranks iz cut of by the Cosacks ov smal critisism. A half-dozen ov our thoroli respectabl colejez must advans tugether. Catalogs, egzamination paperz, programz, schedulez, and reports must be printed in rational speling, and students must be encurajed tu print their coleje paperz so, and must be made tu regard it as a sign of intelectual superioriti. In no other way can it be made respectabl tu spel foneticali. I du not undervalue the eforts of thoz newzpaperz and magazinz hwich ar duing such magnificent work, but they cannot advans or even hold thair ground unsuported.

Riterz far abler than I hav abundantli shown the futiliti ov the idea ov retaining our prezent speling for the sake of its etimolojical value. Yet in the mindz ov meni colej men it stil haz weight. With such personz, I hav found it useful tu make two points veri clear.

(1.) The simpl speling ov a word never teachez etimoloji. If one haz not studid the orijinal langwej, no conformiti tu it in our English speling wil avail even remoteli tu sujest it. I hav for a cwarter ov a senturi spelt *bury* in riting ov interments, tho I spel the same sound *berry* hwen riting ov fruits,and I hav spelt the silabl *biz* in *business, busi.* Yet having never studid Anglo-Saxon, I hav not tu this day the faintest suspision ov the historical facts hwich thez absurd spelingz comemorate. Nor du I find that the dali sight ov *biz* spelt *busi* haz eni more tendenci tu teach me the histori ov the word, than the daili sight ov a hunchbackt-cripl haz tu teach me the date and detailz ov the melancholi acsident or dizeas hwich contorted him.

(2.) Hwen we hav studid the orijinal langwej, the etimoloji ov English derivativs ocurz tu us however they may be spelt. We hu read Greek see the root ov *phaino* in *fancy* spelt with *f* just az we du in *phantasm* spelt with *ph.* We no that *surgeon* waz once *cheirourgos*, hand-worker, az wel az if we spelt it *chirurgeon*, az we used tu du. Latin scolarz no that *recede* comz from *cedo*, and that *proceed* comz from the same *cedo*, in spite ov the varid speling.

I du not think it ought tu recwire half-an-hour tu convins eni colej man that our prezent speling doez not teach or sujest etimoloji tu eni ecsept thoz hu hav alredi lernd it independentli, and tu them onli in an uterli inconsistent, haphazard and fragmenteri fashion.

Meni colej men hav never reflected upon the significans ov the fact that no one haz ever lernd tu read English—that iz, tu pronouns a word hwich he never herd pronounst, upon simpli seeing it riten. Varius numberz ov yearz hav bin fixt az neseseri for lerning tu read and rite English fluentli, som say five, som seven ; but the truth iz, that a *human life* is too short for the undertaking. Thar iz probabli no colej profesor in America hu doez not mispronouns som not veri rare wordz thru sheer ignorans and failure ever tu hav atended tu the pronunsiation ov other peple. The first time a word falz under the eye, a dozen analogiz sujest az meni ways ov speaking it. Most readerz at once adopt one without consious reazoning and giv no more thought tu the mater. And this pronunsiation thus foolishli fixt, iz, ov cors, az liabl to be rong az right.

We talk ov the Queen'z English, conseding tu her that preeminens in respect tu langwej hwich iz herz in church and state. Yet the Queen must read English in the same painful fashion az the rest ov us, with Webster and Lippincott at her elbow, that iz, if she comz at the soundz hwich the writerz intended tu sujest. Fortunateli the Queen can du no rong, and royal blunderz may becom the standard ov orthoepic corectnes. Disraeli, her prime minister, hwen ennobled, choze tu take hiz titl from the litl vilej ov Bĕaconzfield. But hwen he came with the new decoration intu her majesti's presens, she hu had mereli seen the word riten, adrest him as Erl ov B*ee*conzfield. The complaizant cortier made no corection, and retired with a chanjd name.

Thre memberz ov Oberlin Colej Faculti sat resentli in my parlor. They ar al men ov high and egzact scolarship hu can read a Greek trajedi and enjoy it. In fact, we had met for that veri purpose. Yet the simpl word *brooch* coming up, each ov thez jentlemen mispronounst it. Now it so hapend that once in a jeweler'z shop on Fleet street, in London, my ear had caught the tru pronunsiation and I had remembered it. But thez jentlemen, hu had never had a pin mended in London, and had onli studid at Amherst and Harvard and in New-York City, wer stil in a night ov ignorans.

Not long ago I herd a graduate of Amherst say *con′-ge-res* insted ov *con-ge′-ri-es.* This jentleman teachez Latin with unusual sucses and noz al about the derivation and signification ov the word. But he noz that *series* may be pronounced *se-res,* and in som moment ov unconscius serebration he haz extended the analoji tu congeries, and desided tu say *con′-ge-res.*

More resentli, I herd an admird precher, a graduate ov Yale, pronouns *cerements* in thre silablz—*cer-e-ments.* T-e-n-e-m-e-n-t spel *ten-e-ment,* hwy not c-e-r-e-m-e-n-t *cer-e-ment?* Now hwat probabiliti iz thar that this Yale graduate wil ever suspect and corect hiz eror?

Until Webster'z late appendix came out meni ov us did not no how tu pronouns the name ov that great famili ov langwejez tu hwich our own belongz. A-r-y-a-n might be sounded a dozen wayz or mor. An ecselent Anglo-Saxon and erli English scolar ov my accwaintans fixt for hiz clasez the pronunsiation *Ary′-an.* But the dictioneri says *Ar′-yan.*

It is wel for the peace ov mind ov most personz that thair irrational contempt for egzactnes in pronunsiation iz az imperturbabl az thair irrational reverens for egzactnes in the establisht speling. But thoz ov us hu gru up with the ambition ov both riting and *speaking* English correctli hav suferd agoniz ov dout, and no one can be made consious ov hiz own defects here without becoming soon an ardent advocate ov fonetic speling. I can't imagine, for egzampl, how thoz hu teach chemistri can be content with speling hundredz ov chemical namez so that teacherz and pupilz alike go constantli rong in speaking. If *sodium chlorid* iz the onli authorized name for table salt, why shud a silent *e* be put at the end tu mislead the majoriti intu *chloride.* If ben′-zin is hwat the chemist hu noz sez, hwy rite it so that everi bodi els sez ben-zeen′? And it iz just so in Geoloji. If pāleotherium be corect, hwy must the word be so writen that pā̆leotherium sujests itself az redili? Hwy this egzasperating unsertenti, hanging like a fog around everi unusual or tecnical word iz madening! It sistematicali forsez even the most consientius ov us tu deside without evidens and tu act without reazon.

I believ that the time iz ripe for a long step forward in speling-reform. Al our most eminent scolarz hav pronounst it esential. Hundredz ov les conspicuous teacherz aprove it. Al over the land they ar impatientli waiting. Widely sirculating jurnalz ar driving the entering wej. It remainz for the colejez tu move forward and ocupi the pozition hwich thez scouts declare tenabl.

And we hav seen hwy onli the colejez can du it. Fonetic speling doez luk most unreasonabli clownish tu our eyez. Perhaps it iz becauz Ward, and Billingz and Nazbi hav don so much with it. Non but the most thoroli educated can du enithing but impede the work. Faulti retoric and bad gramar spelt foneticali hav alredi ecsited the nausea ov the litereri world.

Our poets and novelists cannot be expected tu lead in such a reform. It wud be tu sacrifize thair works ov art. Newzpaperz must move veri sloli. But colej catalogz and egzamination paperz, the oficial publicationz ov bordz ov eminent scolarz for the use ov yunger scolarz, and colej and scul text-buks ought at once tu apear with reformd spelingz. Our yung peple wud in a few weeks use such buks with redines hwile the jeneral public might be induljd with a slower rate ov progres.

Mr. E. O. VAILE, ov Chicago, waz next introdust, but he did not read hiz paper on Speling Reform and the Pres, prefering tu giv its substans *ex tempore.* He pointed out som ov the practical dificultiz in the way ov the pres, huz conductorz ar jenerali in harti simpathi with the reform, but ar timid in advansing without the suport ov the egzampl ov our colejez.

A liveli discussion folod, which waz participated in by Prof. J. A. ROBERT, ov Dayton, O.; Prof. JEROME ALLEN, ov the State Normal Scul, Geneseo, N. Y.; J. C. GILCHRIST, principl ov the Iowa State Normal Scul; Prof. D. L. FREEBORN, ov Hornellzville, N. Y.; Prof. A. N. MERTZ, ov Steubenville, O.; and Dr. T. S. LAMBERT, LL. D., ov New York city. Thez speakerz al agreed az tu the nesesiti ov prompt action, in order tu impruv the sculz and advans the interests ov education. The recomendation ov Prof. BALLANTINE that som ov the leading colejez shud agre tu acsept new spelingz in colej exersizez waz most hartili apruvd. In fact, such prominent educatorz az GILCHRIST, ov Iowa, and ALLEN, ov New York, hu see clearli the wants ov the sculz, ar practicali in revolt agenst the absurditi ov hieroglific speling, and ar redi tu "teach men so." If our higher institutionz wil set the exampl, a muvment wil be begun along the whole line, which wil sweep away the last vestij ov our absurd orthografi. A year ago "the air waz ful ov hope." Now that hope iz faith, and iz rapidli blosoming intu fruit.

At the sujestion ov Mr. E. O. VAILE, a number ov personz became memberz by paying a dolar.

The Asosiation proseeded tu elect ofiserz, hwich rezulted in the election ov the ofiserz ov last year, ecsept that T. R. VICKROY, ov St. Louis, waz elected treasurer, with Profs. F. L. SOLDAN, WM. M. BRYANT, and F. E. COOK, ov St. Louis, az a finanse comiti.

After a protracted session ov several hourz, the Asosiation adjurnd *sine die.*

The egzecutiv comiti held a meeting subsecwent tu adjurnment, and empowerd the prezident, F. A. MARCH, tu act for them *ad interim.*

T. R. VICKROY, *Secreteri pro tem.*

CIRCULARS OF INFORMATION

OF THE

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

No. 2—1880.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, AT ITS MEETING AT
WASHINGTON, D. C., FEBRUARY 18-20, 1880.

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LETTER.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, June 30, 1880.

SIR: The chief educational officials of our State and municipal public school systems form a separate department of the National Education Association, and meet for consultation and the discussion of subjects of interest to the profession and the public. The proceedings at the meeting in the month of February, 1880, were important. Among the principal papers on subjects discussed were Bell's visible speech as a means of recording and teaching languages and the deaf-mute, the tenth census from an educational point of view, industrial education, the treatment of dependent children by the State, the best public school system for a State, higher education, and the educational needs of the Southern States.

These papers and discussions are on living topics, will answer many demands upon this Office, and will prove useful to educators and school officials generally. I therefore recommend their publication as a circular of information.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JOHN EATON,
Commissioner.

Hon. CARL SCHURZ,
Secretary of the Interior.

Approved, and publication ordered.

C. SCHURZ,
Secretary.

33-34

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

MEMBERS PRESENT.

Hon. M. A. Newell, State superintendent of public instruction, Maryland.

Hon. J. W. Dickinson, secretary of State board of education, Massachusetts.

Hon. E. A. Hubbard, agent of State board of education, Massachusetts.

Hon. J. P. Wickersham, State superintendent of public instruction, Pennsylvania.

Hon. W. A. Lindsey, deputy State superintendent of public instruction, Pennsylvania.

Hon. J. H. Smart, State superintendent of public instruction, Indiana.

Hon. James P. Slade, State superintendent of public instruction, Illinois.

Hon. G. J. Orr, State school commissioner, Georgia.

Hon. W. H. Ruffner, State superintendent of public instruction, Virginia.

Hon. T. B. Stockwell, State commissioner of public schools, Rhode Island.

Hon. J. W. Hoyte, member of State board of education representing the State superintendent of public schools, Tennessee.

Hon. W. K. Pendleton, State superintendent of free schools, West Virginia.

Hon. J. D. Pickett, State superintendent of public instruction, Kentucky.

Hon. J. Ormond Wilson, superintendent of city schools, Washington, D. C.

Hon. W. T. Harris, superintendent of city schools, St. Louis, Mo.

Hon. Aaron Gove, superintendent of city schools, Denver, Colo.

Hon. A. P. Marble, superintendent of city schools, Worcester, Mass.

Hon. George J. Luckey, superintendent of city schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Hon. H. S. Tarbell, superintendent of city schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

Hon. John C. Hervey, superintendent of city schools, Wheeling, W. Va.

Hon. I. L. Irwin, superintendent of city schools, Fort Wayne, Ind.

Hon. J. A. Nichols, superintendent of city schools, Yonkers, N. Y.

Hon. R. McMillan, superintendent of city schools, Youngstown, Ohio.

Hon. Hamilton McRae, superintendent of city schools, Muncie, Ind.

Hon. Henry Shepherd, superintendent of city schools, Baltimore, Md.

Hon. S. A. Baer, superintendent of Berks County schools, Pennsylvania.

Hon. Richard Carne, superintendent of city schools, Alexandria, Va.

Hon. J. A. M. Passmore, president of board of education, Pottsville, Pa.

Dr. D. B. Hagar, principal of normal school, Salem, Mass.

Prof. I. N. Carleton, principal of normal school, New Britain, Conn.

General S. C. Armstrong, principal of normal school, Hampton, Va.

Prof. George P. Beard, principal of normal school, California, Pa.

Miss Lucilla E. Smith, principal of normal school, Washington, D. C.

Mrs. Louise Pollock, principal of National Kindergarten Institute, Washington, D. C.

Hon. John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

Hon. John D. Philbrick, United States commissioner of education, Paris Exposition, Boston, Mass.

Dr. Barnas Sears,[1] general agent Peabody education fund, Staunton, Va.

Hon. F. A. Walker, Superintendent United States Census, Washington, D. C.

Dr. D. C. Gilman, president Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Dr. Charles Warren, chief clerk Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Hon. T. W. Bicknell, editor New England Journal of Education, Boston, Mass.

General C. E. Hovey, lawyer, Washington, D. C.

Prof. L. A. Butterfield, School of Vocal Culture, Boston, Mass.

Mrs. L. A. Butterfield, School of Vocal Culture, Boston, Mass.

Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, inventor of Bell telephone.

Prof. C. C. Painter, Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.

Prof. J. M. Wilson, trustee Industrial Home School, Washington, D. C.

Prof. Z. Richards, principal Eclectic Academy, Washington, D. C.

B. G. Lovejoy, esq., member board of education, Washington, D. C.

A. Hart, esq., ex-member board of education, Washington, D. C.

J. W. Schermerhorn, New York City.

Prof. Theodore Fisk, University, of Nashville, Tenn.

Hon. Josiah Dent, president board of commissioners District of Columbia, Washington, D. C.

Hon. C. M. Mathews, president board of education, D. C.

Mr. Edward Baldwin, member board of education, D. C.

Dr. Arthur Christie, member board of education, D. C.

Prof. J. Enthoffer, United States Coast Survey, Washington, D. C.

---

[1] Since deceased.

Mr. J. R. Bigelow, Washington, D. C.
Mr. J. L. Smith, Washington, D. C.
Miss Gertie Cowling, instructor primary class, Washington, D. C.
Aaron Smith, Brooklyn, N. Y.
William T. Schofield, Philadelphia, Pa.
Dr. F. B. Hough, Lowville, N. Y.
Rev. W. W. Patton, president Howard University, Washington, D. C.
L. P. Juvet, inventor of the time globe, Glen's Falls, N. Y.
Rev. Russell A. Olin, Canajoharie, N. Y.

PRELIMINARY MEETING.

The department met in the red parlor of the Ebbitt House, Wednesday evening, February 18, 1880, President Newell in the chair, and Hon. Aaron Gove, of Colorado, secretary.

The programme as originally announced in the printed circular was informally talked over.

General EATON said that Hon. C. D. Randall, of Michigan, could not be present, but had forwarded his paper on "The education of children who are neglected by their parents," and he would lay it before the department at the proper time.

President NEWELL said that Superintendent Parker, of the Quincy (Mass.) schools, would not be present.

General HOVEY inquired whether, in the absence of Mr. Parker, the subject of the "new departure" at Quincy would come up for consideration? This query led to some discussion between Messrs. Hagar, Hovey, Richards, Luckey, Marble, Dickinson, and others, who expressed much satisfaction that the Quincy people had gone to work to improve their common schools. There was some doubt expressed, however, whether what is heralded as a "new departure" was other than a "new departure" for Quincy; in fact, its best features, so far as they had been disclosed, were quite old—as old as Pestalozzi in Europe and "Father Pierce" in America. They had long been familiar to the profession, and were in practical operation in the schools of many towns and cities. It was decided, however, not to consider the question in the absence of Mr. Parker.

The remainder of the programme was unchanged.

FIRST SESSION—THURSDAY MORNING.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *February* 19, 1880.

The department met at 10 o'clock A. M. in the vestry room of the Congregational Church, corner of Tenth and G streets, and was called to order by the president, Hon. M. A. Newell, of Maryland.

Rev. Dr. C. C. MEADOR offered prayer.

Hon. S. A. BAER, of Pennsylvania, was appointed secretary.

Hon. J. ORMOND WILSON, of the District of Columbia, moved the appointment of committees, extended an invitation to the department to visit the city schools, and stated that a bill was now pending in Congress to incorporate the "National Education Association."

The chair announced the committees as follows: *Executive committee*—Messrs. Wilson of Washington, Harris of St. Louis, Slade of Illinois. *On invitations*—Messrs. Hovey of District of Columbia, Bicknell of Massachusetts, Gove of Colorado. *On national legislation* (with power to add to their number)—Messrs. Ruffner of Virginia, Orr of Georgia, Smart of Indiana, Dickinson of Massachusetts, and Wickersham of Pennsylvania. *On resolutions*—Messrs. Hagar of Massachusetts, Tarbell of Michigan, and Luckey of Pennsylvania.

The president then introduced Prof. L. A. BUTTERFIELD, of Boston, Mass., who made the following address:

VISIBLE SPEECH.

The science of visible speech embraces a knowledge of the elementary sounds of all languages and a set of physiological characters representing those sounds. The principles and natural laws of the vowel and consonant formations were discovered in the year 1864 by Prof. Alex. Melville Bell, of the Edinburgh University, after many years of careful study and investigation. When he had wrought out and clearly defined the principles of his discovery, he devised a convenient set of characters or symbols to represent the individual sounds of all languages. All articulation depends upon the parts of organs used in speech, and the relation of these parts to one another.

Mr. Bell discovered the universal phonetic basis of language by a careful and experimental study of all the organs used in articulation, and all the positions and relations in which they are adjusted in the production of speech. He gave to each organ used in articulation a distinct symbol, pictorial of the part used; also the relation of the organs to each other he symbolized in a similar manner: so that each symbol in the alphabet indicates to the eye what organs are used and the definite positions in which these organs are placed in the production of any element of speech.

There are two sets of organs used in articulation, the upper and passive set, consisting of upper lip, upper gum, hard palate, soft palate, &c., the lower and active set of organs, consisting of lower lip, point of tongue, top of tongue, back of tongue, &c.; which are brought near or against the upper set in the act of articulation.

Each vowel or consonant sound depends for its individual quality or character upon the definite position or action of the organs of speech. Knowing the position of the organs for any element in any language, and adjusting the organs for that position, one can produce only the element desired, and the visible speech character in the universal alphabet expresses to any one acquainted with the system the particular and definite position for that element. The visible speech symbol used to represent the English P indicates that the lower lip is shut against the upper lip, and that this position is immediately relaxed with an expulsive puff of breath. The symbol for B indicates the same position of the lips as for P, with a slight vibration of the vocal chords. For M the lips are closed as for P and B, with voice escaping through the nasal passage. For T the point of the tongue is raised against the upper gum (entirely closing the mouth passage) and immediately relaxed, with an expulsive puff of breath. For D the same position of the tongue is taken as for T, with slight vibration of vocal chords; for N the same position as for T and D, while voice escapes through the nasal passage. For K the back of the tongue is closed against the soft palate, and immediately relaxed with a puff of breath. For the sound of G as heard in the word "go," the back of the tongue is in the same position as for K, with a slight sound from the larynx. For the sound we call *ng* as in the word "morning," the back of the tongue is closed against the soft palate as for K and G, with voice escaping through the nasal passage while the position is held. For L the point of the tongue touches the upper gum in the centre, but does not entirely close the mouth passage, the voice escaping on each side of the tongue. For Y the central part called top, of the tongue is raised near the hard palate, leaving a very small passage through which the vocal current passes. In like manner is the mechanism of all languages and all dialects indicated. In the visible speech alphabet are symbols to represent all the sounds of all languages, and any one understanding the principles of the system can articulate all these sounds by simply executing with the organs of speech whatever the symbols dictate.

Soon after Professor Bell perfected the system of visible speech, it was carefully tested by scientific and literary men from the principal European nations and by commissioners from other parts of the world. Mr. Bell had no difficulty in representing by his alphabet any sounds in any language.

SOME OF THE APPLICATIONS OF VISIBLE SPEECH.

Foreign languages.—Much time is spent and often great difficulty experienced by students of modern languages in gaining sufficient mastery of their pronunciation to enable them to use these languages as a means of communication. It is a very easy matter for apt students to learn to read the French, German, Spanish, Italian, and other languages, but it is quite another thing to speak these languages with correct sounds and native accent. It is very common that American students and even teachers of French and German in our colleges and seminaries find it difficult and often impossible to make themselves understood in speaking those languages in France and Germany. The difficulty is simply that they have learned to read these languages in the elementary sounds of the English language, some of which are as unlike some of the French and German sounds as are the Roman letters unlike the

Greek or German text. A knowledge of visible speech enables one in a very short space of time to gain easy command of any of these new sounds. The facility with which one may gain pronunciation of new sounds in any language is apparent to any one who has witnessed the demonstrations which Professor Bell and myself have often made in the presence of large numbers of teachers and educators.

At the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association, held at Worcester, January 4, 1879, the following test was made: One of my pupils, Mr. J. H. Brown, a gentleman from Canada who had studied the system with me for five weeks only, went into an adjoining room while the audience dictated French, Greek, Japanese, and German words which I wrote on the blackboard in visible speech symbols. Mr. Brown was called, and he articulated what was upon the board with perfect accuracy. At a lecture before the Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y., February, 1879, Mrs. Butterfield and some of the young ladies of the college retired from the audience room while other students and teachers translated English sentences into French and German, pronouncing them in very good French and German sounds. I wrote their pronunciation upon the blackboard. Mrs. Butterfield and the young ladies were called. Mrs. Butterfield read the sentences upon the board just as originally pronounced; the young ladies understood them in French and German, and gave us the original meaning in English. I have made similar tests of the system before large audiences of educators in over twenty languages and dialects, and always with perfect results. Any student of modern languages will find it a very easy matter to acquire the ready pronunciation and command of the sounds of those languages by a knowledge of this system.

Standard of pronunciation.—The visible speech alphabet furnishes the means of fixing and preserving a standard of pronunciation in all languages. If such a phonetic standard had been known to the Greeks and Romans, the pronunciation of the ancient orators could have been definitely and absolutely preserved.

Mr. Shuje Isawa, from Tokio, Japan, and Mr. Tanetaro Megata, Japanese commissioner of education to the United States, studied this system with me at the Boston School of Vocal Physiology. Mr. Isawa is now principal of the Tokio Normal School in Japan, and Mr. Megata has recently returned to his native land. These two gentlemen propose to unify the pronunciation of Japan, and bring the many dialects of that country to a common standard. Professor Luther Whiting Mason, who has recently been engaged by the Japanese Government to introduce music in the schools of Japan, and who has studied the system to some extent, says, to quote his own words: "I shall make visible speech the basis of all my work in Japan."

Primary instruction.—By the use of this system, the children in our schools may easily be taught the proper pronunciation of all the elementary sounds in the language. It would not increase the labor of pupil and teacher, but would greatly simplify the work now attempted. If the primary school teachers were thoroughly furnished with a knowledge of the system, it would undoubtedly be economy in the plan of a thorough education. In the United States, children from foreign countries could readily be taught to speak English with the same sounds and accent as American children speak it. If visible speech were a part of the regular course of study in our normal and training schools, it would greatly increase the usefulness of our teachers and revolutionize the pronunciation of our public schools, obtaining an easy and elegant pronunciation where now may be found imperfect articulation and drawling sounds.

Defects of speech.—If the mechanism of speech was thoroughly understood, the primary and grammar school teachers might easily remove lisping and similar defects of speech from children under their care. The tendency to develop one articulate position for another might readily be corrected by showing the child what is at fault and pointing out the positions the articulating organs should assume to produce the elements desired.

Christian missions.—Visible speech will be of great value in mission fields. The difficulties which missionaries have experienced in acquiring the pronunciation of the natives of any country and in teaching the natives the pronunciation of their languages will readily disappear by the use of this system. Visible speech has already been introduced into China by a missionary from Scotland. Large portions of the New Testament have been translated into the Chinese spoken language and printed in visible speech symbols. The Chinese written language and the Chinese spoken language are two distinct languages. The Chinese spoken language was never written or printed until visible speech was employed for that purpose. The value of visible speech to mission work will be apparent in the following demonstrations, which were made in Boston, Mass., December 26, 1879: Rev. Mr. Richardson, who has been a missionary in Turkey for many years, gave difficult sentences in Turkish and Armenian dialects, which I wrote upon the blackboard in visible speech symbols. Mrs. Richardson gave the Arabic words of "Our Father, who art in heaven," which were also written upon the board. A pupil and a little daughter of the missionary, who had been sent out of the room while the sentences were given, came in. The pupil articulated correctly what was upon the board, and the little girl translated it. Rev. Mr. Richardson said that he had never before met a person who could pronounce for the first time correctly a very difficult word that he gave in the Arabic language.

I recently gave demonstrations at the Newton (Mass.) Theological Institution. Mrs. Butterfield retired from the lecture room while sentences in various languages were given. Mr. Thomas, a young student in the theological school, who was born in Burmah and spoke the Karen dialect, gave sentences in his native tongue, which were written upon the blackboard in the phonetic symbols. Mrs. Butterfield came in and read with perfect accuracy the sentences upon the board. Mr. Thomas pronounced her articulation of the Karen sentences correct. He said his father could not pronounce them with such vernacular accuracy after having lived in Karen eighteen years.

SIMPLICITY OF THE SYSTEM.

The system of visible speech may readily be acquired by any one. A practical teacher may learn the system thoroughly in from three to six weeks by devoting a little time to the subject each day. By directing the attention to the mechanism of the elementary sounds, these definite sounds may be taught as object lessons to the eye. In this way any child may acquire the pronunciation of all the sounds of the universal alphabet with surprising ease and rapidity. The system was introduced into Boston, Mass., in the year 1871 by Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the Bell telephone and son of Alexander Melville Bell. Professor Bell has applied the system to the teaching of deaf-mutes in the United States with great practical resuls. The number of characters used to represent all the sounds of all languages may not exceed one hundred. Visible speech does not interfere with any existing alphabet; it does not make a standard in any language, but furnishes the means of representing and preserving any standard of pronunciation which may be established.

Professor Butterfield illustrated his lecture by blackboard exercises. He drew a diagram of the organs of speech and clearly demonstrated the principles of the system.

The following test was given: Mrs. Butterfield, who understands the system, was requested to retire from the room while sentences were given in foreign languages. Sounds in Hindoostanee were given by Dr. Warren, of the Bureau of Education; sentences in Russian and Bohemian were given by J. Enthoffer, United States Coast Survey; and an illustration in Gaelic was given by Dr. Newell, president of the association; all of which were written by the speaker upon the blackboard in visible speech symbols. Mrs. Butterfield returned to the room and pronounced with accuracy the sentences upon the board.

In the discussion that followed,

President NEWELL asked if the following out of this method did not depend entirely upon a correct ear and a cultivated voice.

Professor BUTTERFIELD called on Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone and son of the inventor of this alphabet, to inform the audience as to what his experience had been in this particular.

Professor BELL said he thought he could prove that the ear was an entirely unnecessary organ. He, himself, had been very successful in teaching deaf-mutes by these characters, and of course without the aid of the ear at all. The ear was really very often a defective organ, and may frequently be accustomed to understand defective sounds. The sounds taught by this method are necessarily correct. He would go further and say that speech may be acquired when the ear is entirely wanting; and gave as an instance the case of two children that came to his notice, who entirely lost their hearing from scarlet fever and were fast losing their power of speech. As a last resort their teacher was induced to adopt this method, which showed astonishing results. They learned quickly, and by having words printed with these characters underneath they soon taught themselves to read.

Dr. **Harris** said that one of the most important books in his library was upon this subject, and it was one that he was in the habit of frequently consulting. He supposed physical training necessary for the successful use of this method.

A member inquired whether the sounds that these characters represent would remain the same although the pronunciation of the words of a language was constantly changing.

Professor **Bell** thought that the gentleman misapprehended the value of the alphabet and the purposes of its users. If the standard pronunciation of a word at any given time can be recorded in this absolutely phonetic and physiological alphabet, every subsequent change in its pronunciation can be recorded as easily. A record of this kind, showing the actual variations of typical spoken words in our own language since the time of Chaucer, or even of the Elizabethan period, would be of inestimable value to philologists. The use of the alphabet in education to indicate the present accepted pronunciation of words is another valuable but quite different one, and should not be confused with its use for historical linguistics.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

Mr. **Bicknell**, of Massachusetts, read a paper "proposing a plan for a national council of education." The paper has not been furnished for publication, nor can an abstract of it now be made; in the expectation that the paper itself would be available, no notes were taken at the time. It may be said generally, however, that the writer defined and explained what he understood by a national council of education, and suggested reasons for its establishment. He did not go much into details, nor commit himself as to the number or qualifications of members; how they should be chosen, by whom, or for how long; whether they should be paid for their services, and, if so, how much or by whom; or whether their acts should be regarded as advisory or mandatory; or what should be the exact scope of their powers and duties. But he argued in a general way in favor of establishing some national authority to which the great body of educators might appeal as a court of last resort — a body competent to formulate principles and courses of study, and to give safe counsel.

The paper closed with a resolution intended to draw out an expression

Hon. R. McMillan, superintendent of city schools, Youngstown, Ohio.

Hon. Hamilton McRae, superintendent of city schools, Muncie, Ind.

Hon. Henry Shepherd, superintendent of city schools, Baltimore, Md.

Hon. S. A. Baer, superintendent of Berks County schools, Pennsylvania.

Hon. Richard Carne, superintendent of city schools, Alexandria, Va.

Hon. J. A. M. Passmore, president of board of education, Pottsville, Pa.

Dr. D. B. Hagar, principal of normal school, Salem, Mass.

Prof. I. N. Carleton, principal of normal school, New Britain, Conn.

General S. C. Armstrong, principal of normal school, Hampton, Va.

Prof. George P. Beard, principal of normal school, California, Pa.

Miss Lucilla E. Smith, principal of normal school, Washington, D. C.

Mrs. Louise Pollock, principal of National Kindergarten Institute, Washington, D. C.

Hon. John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

Hon. John D. Philbrick, United States commissioner of education, Paris Exposition, Boston, Mass.

Dr. Barnas Sears,[1] general agent Peabody education fund, Staunton, Va.

Hon. F. A. Walker, Superintendent United States Census, Washington, D. C.

Dr. D. C. Gilman, president Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Dr. Charles Warren, chief clerk Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Hon. T. W. Bicknell, editor New England Journal of Education, Boston, Mass.

General C. E. Hovey, lawyer, Washington, D. C.

Prof. L. A. Butterfield, School of Vocal Culture, Boston, Mass.

Mrs. L. A. Butterfield, School of Vocal Culture, Boston, Mass.

Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, inventor of Bell telephone.

Prof. C. C. Painter, Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.

Prof. J. M. Wilson, trustee Industrial Home School, Washington, D. C.

Prof. Z. Richards, principal Eclectic Academy, Washington, D. C.

B. G. Lovejoy, esq., member board of education, Washington, D. C.

A. Hart, esq., ex-member board of education, Washington, D. C.

J. W. Schermerhorn, New York City.

Prof. Theodore Fisk, University, of Nashville, Tenn.

Hon. Josiah Dent, president board of commissioners District of Columbia, Washington, D. C.

Hon. C. M. Mathews, president board of education, D. C.

Mr. Edward Baldwin, member board of education, D. C.

Dr. Arthur Christie, member board of education, D. C.

Prof. J. Enthoffer, United States Coast Survey, Washington, D. C.

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[1] Since deceased.

Mr. J. R. Bigelow, Washington, D. C.
Mr. J. L. Smith, Washington, D. C.
Miss Gertie Cowling, instructor primary class, Washington, D. C.
Aaron Smith, Brooklyn, N. Y.
William T. Schofield, Philadelphia, Pa.
Dr. F. B. Hough, Lowville, N. Y.
Rev. W. W. Patton, president Howard University, Washington, D. C.
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SIMPLICITY OF THE SYSTEM.

The system of visible speech may readily be acquired by any one. A practical teacher may learn the system thoroughly in from three to six weeks by devoting a little time to the subject each day. By directing the attention to the mechanism of the elementary sounds, these definite sounds may be taught as object lessons to the eye. In this way any child may acquire the pronunciation of all the sounds of the universal alphabet with surprising ease and rapidity. The system was introduced into Boston, Mass., in the year 1871 by Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the Bell telephone and son of Alexander Melville Bell. Professor Bell has applied the system to the teaching of deaf-mutes in the United States with great practical resuls. The number of characters used to represent all the sounds of all languages may not exceed one hundred. Visible speech does not interfere with any existing alphabet; it does not make a standard in any language, but furnishes the means of representing and preserving any standard of pronunciation which may be established.

Professor Butterfield illustrated his lecture by blackboard exercises. He drew a diagram of the organs of speech and clearly demonstrated the principles of the system.

The following test was given: Mrs. Butterfield, who understands the system, was requested to retire from the room while sentences were given in foreign languages. Sounds in Hindoostanee were given by Dr. Warren, of the Bureau of Education; sentences in Russian and Bohemian were given by J. Enthoffer, United States Coast Survey; and an illustration in Gaelic was given by Dr. Newell, president of the association; all of which were written by the speaker upon the blackboard in visible speech symbols. Mrs. Butterfield returned to the room and pronounced with accuracy the sentences upon the board.

In the discussion that followed,

President NEWELL asked if the following out of this method did not depend entirely upon a correct ear and a cultivated voice.

Professor BUTTERFIELD called on Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone and son of the inventor of this alphabet, to inform the audience as to what his experience had been in this particular.

Professor BELL said he thought he could prove that the ear was an entirely unnecessary organ. He, himself, had been very successful in teaching deaf-mutes by these characters, and of course without the aid of the ear at all. The ear was really very often a defective organ, and may frequently be accustomed to understand defective sounds. The sounds taught by this method are necessarily correct. He would go further and say that speech may be acquired when the ear is entirely wanting; and gave as an instance the case of two children that came to his notice, who entirely lost their hearing from scarlet fever and were fast losing their power of speech. As a last resort their teacher was induced to adopt this method, which showed astonishing results. They learned quickly, and by having words printed with these characters underneath they soon taught themselves to read.

Dr. **Harris** said that one of the most important books in his library was upon this subject, and it was one that he was in the habit of frequently consulting. He supposed physical training necessary for the successful use of this method.

A member inquired whether the sounds that these characters represent would remain the same although the pronunciation of the words of a language was constantly changing.

Professor **Bell** thought that the gentleman misapprehended the value of the alphabet and the purposes of its users. If the standard pronunciation of a word at any given time can be recorded in this absolutely phonetic and physiological alphabet, every subsequent change in its pronunciation can be recorded as easily. A record of this kind, showing the actual variations of typical spoken words in our own language since the time of Chaucer, or even of the Elizabethan period, would be of inestimable value to philologists. The use of the alphabet in education to indicate the present accepted pronunciation of words is another valuable but quite different one, and should not be confused with its use for historical linguistics.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

Mr. **Bicknell**, of Massachusetts, read a paper "proposing a plan for a national council of education." The paper has not been furnished for publication, nor can an abstract of it now be made; in the expectation that the paper itself would be available, no notes were taken at the time. It may be said generally, however, that the writer defined and explained what he understood by a national council of education, and suggested reasons for its establishment. He did not go much into details, nor commit himself as to the number or qualifications of members; how they should be chosen, by whom, or for how long; whether they should be paid for their services, and, if so, how much or by whom; or whether their acts should be regarded as advisory or mandatory; or what should be the exact scope of their powers and duties. But he argued in a general way in favor of establishing some national authority to which the great body of educators might appeal as a court of last resort — a body competent to formulate principles and courses of study, and to give safe counsel.

The paper closed with a resolution intended to draw out an expression of opinion from the department as to the advisability of constituting such a council.

Mr. TARBELL, of Indiana, moved as an amendment that the department of superintendence be charged with the duties of the proposed council.

Dr. HARRIS opened the discussion of this paper. He thought that an educational council, such as was proposed, could be easily organized under a central government like the governments of Europe, but not here, especially if it was proposed to invest it with any conclusive power. Our separate communities are jealous of any centralization of authority. Again, if the council was to be representative of public or state education, it would necessarily be composed of superintendents, and that would give us our present department over again. The plan, however, contemplates long sessions and deliberate consideration and action. But superintendents are engaged in exacting positions, requiring all their time and attention to protect systems and interests for which they are in some sense responsible. They can hardly be spared to enter the domain of the scholar or philosopher, or to be absent sufficiently long from their special field of labor.

A backhanded blow may be given through the city council or the State legislature when least expected, or may lurk under a bill or resolution most innocent on its face. He, however, desired to be understood as suggesting difficulties rather than expressing opinions.

President NEWELL here informed the association that the time was so limited that he should be obliged hereafter to limit the debate to five-minute speeches.

Mr. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, said that matters of great weight and vital interest would always be before such a body as the proposed council for consideration and action, and such consideration and action would involve close and scientific investigation, and a good deal of it. But of what value would all this be if there was no authority to enforce the conclusions and acts of the council? It may be that the moral or advisory power of the opinions of such a body might give to their acts the necessary authority, and in that case no one could object to it, not even Mr. Harris himself. To touch on another point, the scheme of a council, as suggested in the paper just read, seems to contemplate a somewhat large membership, whereas he thought a small body would be better. A large council would simply be the national association over again.

Mr. HARRIS, of St. Louis, remarked that if this council could be organized to treat subjects scientifically and publish the results it reached, as wholly advisory, it would be a welcome organ. But this matter should come up now only for discussion; there should be no immediate action; we should make haste slowly.

Mr. SHEPHERD, of Baltimore, agreed with Messrs. Harris and Wickersham, yet he could not see why an organization of this kind could not be effected for the discussion of subjects that might come before it scientifically, in a proper manner, instead of in the "ad captandum" way usual in our popular assemblies.

Mr. **MARBLE**, of Massachusetts, said that the superintendent of St. Louis had fully demonstrated the possibility of a superintendent at once a scholar and a philosopher. If some organization could be effected by which the rich experience and valuable ideas of eminent educators could be made available by publication or otherwise to their co-workers, it would be exactly what was needed. It is a matter of public history that the most intelligent school labor is constantly being neutralized or thwarted by ill considered publications and criticism; and this condition of things was rendered possible, he thought, because we have no standard or authority in such matters. There is no authoritative controlling educational influence in this country whose matured conclusions can be offset against the flippant assertions of any upstart who can publish his *opinions* upon this or that subject in the newspapers, which are immediately quoted as reliable. Of course they are only opinions, but then they have their influence.

Dr. **HAGAR**, of Massachusetts, advocated the formation of a national council, something after the plan suggested, as a means of establishing correct opinions on educational questions and of combating and overthrowing heresies and false notions of education. Of course it must be so constituted as to command the confidence and respect of the great body of teachers, but it is not necessary that it should be a large body.

Dr. **HOYTE**, of Tennessee, thought there would be great difficulty in agreeing upon the limits of eligibility to the office of councillor; that is, in determining who might, and who might not, be eligible to a seat in that body, and, if an agreement could be reached on that point, then what power should elect or appoint these councillors? Upon both these vital questions he thought the paper just read was too general in its terms or suggestions. Something specific and in detail ought to be proposed, if practical results are contemplated. Then, again, who shall determine the length and frequency of the sessions of this council? What are to be the expenses and how are they to be paid?

He would remind them of one serious difficulty that they must guard against, which usually threatened educational associations. If great care was not taken the omnipresent book agent would worm himself in and monopolize the whole thing and be the controlling power.

Mr. **GOVE**, of Colorado, seemed to see almost insurmountable obstacles to such an organization. It would seem easy enough for the members of this department to suggest fifty names for membership in such a council, and their participation would be an earnest of the usefulness and influence of the organization; but such a beginning would in some measure thwart the ultimate purpose by offering suggestions of exclusiveness. As an attachment, adjunct, or branch of the National Education Association, he did not see, with the little thought he had given the matter, how the desired and necessary material was to be obtained.

The several departments are not relatively of the same importance to the practical work of education. He was of the opinion that an annual meeting for the ends indicated in the paper, and with which effort he was in hearty accord, could be best obtained by voluntary attendance; that if six or more gentlemen, eminent in the profession, would issue an invitation for such a council, stating in such invitation in as detailed a manner as possible the exact object, limitations of discussions, &c., the persons who would respond would be just those whose presence would be most desired, while those not vitally interested would scarcely put themselves to the trouble and expense of attendance. In this whole matter, however, it would seem that further and broader counsel should be sought. It is too important a measure to be hurriedly settled. He trusted the department would cause it to be properly referred for further consideration and report.

Mr. SMART, of Indiana, said there could be no objection, in his opinion, to such an educational body as the proposed council. Its voice would not provoke opposition; on the contrary, it would be generally accepted and followed. He believed the present body, this department of superintendence, might be made the nucleus or germ of such a council, and should that course be pursued its establishment would become easy and speedy. He believed that the way to do it.

Mr. PENDLETON, of West Virginia, was opposed to the amendment and believed that the council, if formed, should be elected by this body, or at least proposed by this body, and elected by the general association; because upon these bodies it would chiefly have to rely for the enforcement of its conclusions and acts. It could enforce nothing of itself. He saw no way to invest it with any executive power; and even its recommendations to Congress or to State legislatures, except so far as they appeared reasonable on their face, would have to depend for success largely upon the aid and support of the national association. A council of the kind proposed should be so constituted as to be able to give a great deal of time to its work, and such he understood to be the distinguishing feature of the proposed body; but it must be borne in mind that long sessions multiply expenses, and how are these to be met? A pauper institution is neither attractive nor influential. He hoped the friends of the measure, as a preliminary step, would bring forward a plan to provide means to pay expenses.

Mr. ORR, of Georgia, asked if the amendment had been seconded. He was very sorry indeed that he had not considered the matter before coming here; he thought that the association was not yet ready for the question.

Mr. TARBELL, of Indianapolis, Ind., thought if this matter failed to be decided at the meeting of the national association at Chautauqua, we would be left exactly where we are now. He withdrew his amendment.

Mr. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, said that, as the meeting did not seem to be prepared to take action on this matter, he had the consent of the original mover of the proposition to offer the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That a committee of eleven members be appointed by the chair to prepare a plan of organization to be reported to the board of managers of the National Education Association, at its next meeting at Chautauqua the coming summer.

The chair appointed as such committee the following gentlemen: Messrs. Bicknell, Wilson, Wickersham, Harris, Hagar, Tarbell, Carleton, Smart, Gove, Shepherd, and Orr.

Mr. MARBLE, of Massachusetts, then read the following paper on the education of children who are neglected by their parents, prepared by Hon. C. D. Randall, of Coldwater, Mich., the author, in the Michigan senate of 1871, of the law establishing the Michigan State Public School for Dependent Children, member of the Société générale des prisons of France, &c.:

THE EDUCATION OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

I present a subject that insists upon a hearing from you as educators. It is not a new one. It has few, if any, new facts or arguments. It claims no originality. It has intruded itself into the meetings of social scientists who were gravely discussing modes of reformation and punishment, and has turned their deliberations to questions of prevention as more certain and economical. It has entered unbidden the halls of legislation, and has secured from the political economist and statesman favorable thought and action. It has entered the church and asked its healthy influence and ever ready assistance. This age more than any other has given it a hearing.

My subject is the education of dependent children by the State, for the mutual welfare of the children and the State.

So this subject through me, rather as a business man than a specialist, intrudes itself into your deliberations, into your presence—who come from the clean courts of the schools and universities and their purer atmosphere. The subject is well worthy your attention. You may not heed it now, but you will if the children of the poor are neglected and the influences of a bad education make powerful the bad elements of society. The growth of pauperism and crime if checked must be through the schools, or it never will be. It is time for efficient action.

Overcrowded Europe for ages has been oppressed with taxes to support dependents and punish criminals. We are rapidly following in her course. We can prevent it if we would. In 1850, with a population of 23,191,876, it cost us yearly $2,954,806 to support dependents and punish criminals. In 1860, with a population of 31,443,321, it cost us yearly

$5,445,143 for the same purposes. In 1870, with a population of 38,558,371, it cost for the same $10,930,429.

It will be seen by these figures that from 1850 to 1860, while the increase of population was about 28 per cent., that of the cost of crime and pauperism was a little over 100 per cent. Also, while the increase of population between 1860 and 1870 was about 44 per cent., the increase of the cost of pauperism and crime was nearly 100 per cent. From these figures we may fairly anticipate that the census of 1880 will show an increase of cost 100 per cent., making the annual cost $20,000,000 per annum. And this remarkable increase of cost in proportion to the increase of population cannot be attributed to an unfruitful soil. During these decades there has been no time when a man in mental and bodily health might not keep his family from dependence.

Surely this subject is a grave one that should not only attract your attention, but that of governments, which might well inquire into the causes of crime and dependence so as to devise methods to reduce these dangerous elements of society to the lowest possible minimum. Governments need well to protect themselves.

In times of great public disturbances, like our recent great railroad riots or like the great upheavals of the French commune, we see and feel the effects of the dangerous classes that we did not think of in more quiet times. When they come to the surface we feel their terrible effects. In more ancient times civilizations were destroyed by enemies from without. The civilizations of the future will be destroyed, if ever, by the barbarism within civilization. This barbarism within civilization decries your high schools and colleges, your free schools, and votes against taxes for their support, though it pays none. It has children to educate, but ignoring their interest would rear them in vice. It has no sympathy with those on the cultured and respectable plane above them. The riot, the commune, feeds upon and lives by this barbarism, which has its basis upon idleness, ignorance, and vice.

The mental, moral, and physical perversion of the youth is the main cause of this dependence and crime. The proper education of the youth is the one great remedy. The literature and laws of all the ages confirm this. You will find it in the Bible, in Plato, in Homer, in Confucius, and in the wisest moralists and lawgivers. Homer says: "Children belong less to their parents than to the state. They are the children of the people. They are the hope of the state. It is too late to mend them when they are spoiled. * * * It is much better to prevent the evil than to be obliged to punish it."

In speaking of the correct education of children says: Confucius aptly "It cannot be when the root is neglected that what should spring from it should be well ordered." The state has a vital interest in its youth, who must grow up either to good citizenship to sustain and protect the state, or as unworthy sons to undermine and destroy it. Pericles said of the Grecian youth killed in battle: "The loss which the state suffers by the destruction of its youth is like the loss which the year suffers by the destruction of spring." And loss by the perversion of youth, how much more injurious to the state.

Neglected childhood, the want of school and trade education, ignorance, idleness, vice, evil associations, and their kindred influences are the causes of crime and pauperism. Children so surrounded grow up with no self-respect, no self-reliance, with no resistance to temptations, easily drift into evil ways, and once lost seldom have the desire to return to virtuous ways. Born in the county poorhouses or sent there under our indulgent laws, many even remain there, so that sometimes three generations of the same race may be found in the same poorhouse. The celebrated Juke family, brought to light through the learned investigations of Mr. Dugdale, shows through six generations 206 paupers, 76 criminals, and 128 prostitutes, all descended from one criminal and pauper ancestor. Marsigny, the distinguished jurist of France, says: "The moral perversity which has caused their ruin dates from early childhood."

I find in the last triennial report of the celebrated Mettray (France) institution for boys that the average number there in 1876 was 756. Of these, 347 were orphans or half orphans, and five-sixths entered the colony without moral or mental education. In the language of the report, "One-third of the number have had only deplorable examples, and among those whose parents live by their labor they have before them only examples of vice and idleness."

Gather statistics from whatever State or country you choose, and they all demonstrate that from dependent children — orphans, half orphans, children of pauper, criminal, or intemperate parents — come the paupers and criminals that are supported by the public. The reports of prison wardens show the following as the principal causes of crime:

In Bavaria: Neglected education and illegitimacy.
In Norway: Neglected education and want of homes.
In Russia: Neglected education.
In the Netherlands: Neglected education and second marriages.
In Sweden: Neglected education and bad company.
In Switzerland: Neglected education and unhealthy family influences.
In the United States: Orphange, want of home life.
In England: Neglected education and street associations.

These are the children that furnish the recruiting posts for the great army of dependents and delinquents. And the number of children not being educated by reason of poverty and other hindrances is very large. It was said a short time since that there were 60,000 in the State of New York not attending school and 25,000 in Philadelphia not in the regular course of instruction. In France it is estimated that there are 100,000 dependent and delinquent children. I translate from the November, 1879, number of the Bulletin de la Société générale des prisons: "It is estimated that there are in France

100,000 children under 16 years of age, who, abandoned by their parents, are living in the midst of vice and crime and form what is justly called the nursery of the jails and station houses." In this country, though we are yet far from the European condition, there must be half that number, including those in asylums and reform institutions. In 1875 there were 17,791 children in the different public institutions of New York, not including those in industrial schools, lodging houses, &c. Hon. William P. Letchworth, president of the State board of charities of New York, in a recent letter informs me that the number is now about 15 per cent. higher. The percentage of these children to the population does not vary much in the several States, except as the number is affected by density of population, as the general treatment of society has been alike in all to propagate and perpetuate this class. Growing up in idleness and vice, a large percentage of them have permanently attached themselves to the ranks of pauperism or crime. Instead of trying to save these children by moral and mental education, governments through all time have waited until the children became chronic dependents or habitual criminals, and then constructed extensive and expensive prisons and reformatories in which to confine, support, and endeavor to reform those who ought to have been saved for a better fate by preventive measures. This policy, pursued so persistently by society, has built up, encouraged, propagated, and perpetuated the dependent and criminal classes to a large extent. These dependent children have their homes on the streets, in places of low resort, in tenement houses, everywhere, anywhere to eke out a miserable existence by starving beggary, by vagrancy, and finally by crime committed to save life. In this way society forced the child to commit crime and then paid the penalty by increased taxation and a tainted society. Aside from the political economy of the subject, the humanity of it might well touch the hardest heart. The destruction of the lives and virtues of the innocents through all time has formed one of the saddest pages in the history of our race.

Save the county poorhouse, the public afforded no shelter for these children. Their only other reliance was that of private charity or the associated charity of the church, both of which were entirely inadequate for performing the great work required. And the average county poorhouse! As a rule, it would have been better for the children and for society if they had died before going there. There they were surrounded by the diseased, the insane, the idiotic, the wrecks of vicious lives. In such a tainted atmosphere the child's character took early directions in the way of permanent dependency and then crime. Children in the county poorhouses grew up in ignorance, became idle, vicious, and depraved. But this was all the public did for them; and that is all it now does for them in most of the States of this Union and in foreign countries.

But the effect of this great wrong upon the child is not limited to him; it extends to the state, especially in republican governments. In this country the right of franchise extends to all alike. The vote of the worst man balances that of the best man in the land. The vote of both, for the safety of the state, should be an educated vote and an honest one. In our great centres of population this ignorant and low element of society is seriously consulted in politics, and has much to do in controlling legislation. But you can never cure this wrong by depriving the ignorant of the right to vote. Rights once given a people can only be taken away by the force of revolution. Moral standards so differ that you cannot establish political rights upon morals. The only remedy is the right one, and that is, secure the moral and intellectual education of the youth. The danger to society from pauperism and crime increases under our old methods in the fact that as our civilization develops the wealthy become more wealthy and the poorer become more helpless; the higher classes become more wealthy and better educated, and the poor more degraded and helpless. Add to this the fact shown, that, under the usual treatment, pauperism and crime increase out of proportion and in excess of the growth of population, and you have a combination of circumstances that tends to undermine and destroy. There have been times in France and England when 1 in 10 to 12 have been aided by charity. In the United States in 1870 it was only 1 in about 332, and Michigan only 1 in about 462. It is a serious question whether we shall follow in the path in which Europe has burdened itself with pauperism and crime, or whether, by preventive educational methods, we shall save ourselves from that fate. Society can prevent much of the evil. There should be no compromising, no temporizing.

It has been thousands of times demonstrated that most of the crime and dependence originates from intemperance; that intemperate parents have bad homes—damp, ill ventilated, and cold; that the air they breathe and the water they drink are impure. By heredity and surroundings their children are puny, defective, and diseased. These children and their parents drag out a miserable existence in hovels and almshouses. And yet the general and State governments legalize the manufacture and sale of liquor by which drunkards are made, the almshouses and jails filled, and the resources of honest labor are taxed to support the poor and punish the dependent and criminal, made so by drink. Public sentiment should demand that this should not be, and states and nations should not be partners in the unholy traffic. It should not be the exception but the rule that the first lady in the nation sets a righteous example over there in the White House. There would be little need that I should advocate here the cause of the children of the poor if State and nation would withdraw from its unholy partnership, and would suppress the business of drunkard making.

It has also been shown that the association of adults in the county poorhouses keeps up the dependent population. In one county poorhouse in one of our principal Middle States 100 children were shown as born in that institution. This source of dependence and crime might be stopped and should.

So I might go on giving controllable causes of pauperism and crime, but they are all outside my subject, which relates to these children of the poor as we find them.

I desire, however, to give these brief statistics which repeat themselves in every State: In Pennsylvania in 1875, 1876, 1877, and 1878, there were 47,268 paupers admitted into the almshouses. Of these 5,163 were abstainers and 42,105 drinkers. During the same time there were 14,504 admitted into the penitentiaries. Of these 2,983 were abstainers and 11,521 were drinkers. This ought to be sufficient evidence to the legislator and taxpayer that intemperance is the great source of dependency and crime, and that the place to begin reform is at the bar where liquor is sold. But until that is done we must take these children of the poor, and, saving them from the fate of their unfortunate parents, separate them from evil surroundings and make them good self-supporting citizens. I urge you to continue the investigation of this subject, believing you will find it profitable for yourselves and the educational interest you represent.

Granting the need of a better education of the children of the poor, by what agency must it be done? You cannot depend upon private charity. That will only operate in places, and will fail often when most needed. The church has struggled long and well with the evil. It has built and operated asylums. Other associated charity has for years done the same work, and ragged schools, aid societies, &c., have done much. But all combined have made little impression upon the evil, that has grown faster than they could supply the wants of the class. While they worked, the State, by bad laws or omitting to make and enforce good ones, has given them more than they could do. In some cities they endeavored to remedy the evil by sending out to other States their children. This, of course, reduced juvenile crime and dependency, was economical for those cities, but expensive and unjust to the people where the children were sent, for many soon had to be supported in the reform schools and jails.

To depend on private charity to support these children is not right, for it must be done by the generous alone. Much of the wealth that is protected by a well governed people will give nothing to make these children law abiding and good citizens. All are equally benefited by having these children become good citizens, producers, and not consumers only, and all should contribute to the work according to their means.

The agency, then, to do this work is one that can command means when needed, and will see that the laws are administered so as best to contribute to the general welfare and safety. There is only one such agency, and that is the State. That power which makes the free school should see that the provisions of laws are made applicable to all classes. The State, having sufficient numbers, can most thoroughly classify and separate defectives, dependents, delinquents in such a way as to secure intelligent and economical administration and the best results. If the State does not itself build and maintain institutions for the education of these children, for their permanent or temporary homes, it can at least follow the example of New York, which has enacted a stringent law prohibiting the keeping of children in the county poorhouses and requiring that they shall be supported in asylums or in families. There are doubtless objections to this law, but it is better than to educate children in the streets and poorhouses, to become permanent dependents or criminals. It may not be well for a State to support children in sectarian asylums, but that would certainly be better than to educate them in the schools of pauperism and crime.

THE MICHIGAN SYSTEM.

There is one State that has undertaken the work of the care and support of dependent children.

In one of the leading journals[1] of the Northwest I find, under date of the 5th instant, the following, which is an unexpected compliment from another State and similar to many expressions from the press:

"One of the noblest, wisest public charities of the country is the State public school of Michigan. Moved both by the instincts of Christian philanthropy and that farseeing political sagacity which discovers that it is the best in every way for society that indigent and neglected children be taken charge of by the State and trained for lives of usefulness, the people of Michigan have established a home and school for this class of children. And what they have undertaken to do they are doing well, doing nobly."

For humane and economic reasons the legislature of Michigan in 1871 established the State Public School for Dependent Children, the first one of the kind under any government. It is maintained entirely by the State, by taxation upon property, the same as are the public schools. It is a part of the common school system of that State, and in no sense is a part of its penal or reformatory system. It is not an asylum for orphans or defectives. It is purely a school, and is no more a charity than the district school supported by taxation, save only in the degree or extent of aid. It is a temporary educational home. Those to be admitted must be dependent on the public for support, over three and under twelve years of age, sound in body and mind. None are admitted on sentence for crime or on suspension of sentence. It is for the children of the poor, and dependence on the public is the only price of admission. Children requiring reformatory treatment must be sent to the reform school for boys in Lansing, or to the girls' reform school, soon to be constructed. This school, opened in 1874 in the buildings erected near Coldwater, is to save children from crime and pauperism. Its work begins at the source of the great river of life, which, if pure, generally flows on to the ocean of eternity forever pure. Its work is all educational, which, whether here or in the common schools or the higher, is especially and peculiarly preventive. It is on the tenable ground that if you save the child you save the man.

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[1] The Chicago Inter-Ocean.

It recognizes that a good family is the best place for a child; so this institution is only a temporary home, it being an agency to obtain, as soon as may be, a good family home for the child, where he or she is placed under a contract securing treatment as a member of the family and an elementary education, with the right in the board to return the child to the school if the terms of the contract are not executed in good faith.

The admissions are divided pro rata among the counties according to the number of dependent children in each when there are more than can be admitted. The capacity is now 300, which receives about all those who are admissible in the State. They are educated in the common branches while in the institution, where they are not kept for any definite time; only until a home is found. Some have been so affected by poorhouse or vagrant life that they require longer moral and mental training than others to fit them to go into homes. The question of their dependence is determined by the judge of probate of the county where the child belongs. A copy of his decision, containing such facts as he can ascertain from witnesses as to the child's history and the habits and condition of the parents, is sent with the child to the school, and forms a basis of his history to be kept up on the records. A sworn certificate of a respectable physician is also sent with the child, showing that it has no chronic disease and has not within fifteen days been exposed to any contagious disease.

The children are comfortably dressed, kept clean, and have pure air, and wholesome, plain food. Uniform excellent health prevails. They are trained to industrious habits. The girls assist in housework, in the care of their cottage homes, and in sewing. The boys work on the farm, in the garden, in the shoeshop, and in keeping their cottages in order. There are eight cottages with 30 children in each, and one double cottage with about 60 children. Each cottage is in charge of a lady cottage manager, who cares for the children as a mother with a smaller family, only that the cooking and eating are done in the main building and the washing in the general laundry. There are six lady teachers, who teach the children as in the district schools. Those children who prove incorrigible, or diseased in body or mind, can be returned to their counties. The institution is in charge of a board of control of three members. It is conducted by a superintendent and the usual employés of institutions. The moral and religious—not sectarian—education of the children has special attention, as required by the law. There is a Sabbath school each Sunday in the afternoon, and the older boys attend service in the forenoon in the city. Everything possible is done by teachers, cottage managers, the superintendent, and all who have directly to do with the children, to secure good discipline, good conduct, and establish a good moral character, so they will be fitted as much as possible while in the school to become good citizens—industrious, self-supporting producers and not consumers only.

Since the opening of the school over 700 have been received and over 400 placed in good family homes.

Indenturing children.—It is made the special duty of the board of control to secure homes for the children. The school is thus a half-way house from dependence to a family home. A person applying for a child must have a written recommendation from an agent of the State board of corrections and charities, one of whom is appointed for each county. He must certify that he has made full investigation, and that in his opinion the home will be a good one for the child, and that the applicant will faithfully execute the contract, which, among other things, requires that the child shall be treated as a member of the family, and shall attend the district school at least three months each year. No child can be indentured to an intemperate person or to one who sells liquor. Whenever in the opinion of the board the contract is not complied with, the child is returned to the school and a new home found. This is always done where the child's welfare appears to require it. Under one provision of law the child may be adopted through the probate court, a proceeding which has been had in numerous cases. In case of such adoption the child becomes the heir at law of the person adopting, and then its relation with the school ceases. The new home of the child is selected with great care, and the future of the child is carefully watched over as by a jealous parent by the agents in the several counties and by others at the request of the superintendent. Reports are had from the children at least twice a year. The guardianship of the board continues during minority. No institution supported by private or associated charity ever watched over its children more closely than do the officials of this school, assisted by the county agents. Everything possible is done for these little waifs that could be wished by the most humane. In their cottage homes, in their schools, and in families they have everything done for them consistent with their highest good. The good of the child takes precedence in all questions.

The general physical, moral, and mental condition, the behavior, advancement in schools, &c., of these children compare favorably with their more fortunate brothers and sisters in the district schools.

Some of the results.—First, children more readily find homes from this school than from the county houses. They are not considered paupers, but State children, and there is not the same discredit attaching to them as to county-house children. A few weeks in the school cleans them up, shows them what discipline is, that some one cares for them, and removes the poorhouse look, and the child appears as a new creation. Good examples, correcting and elevating influences from teachers, managers, their companions, and others soon effect a great change with the worst. Such children so improved find homes when they never would from the county houses, except it be to graduate to the houses of correction or the prison. Here comes in a great economic advantage to the State, that by sooner being placed in families the sooner is the public relieved of their support. In one county three children had in the aggregate 29 years of support, while their aggregate support in the school was not three years. Second result: It is found in this State that there is little difference in the direct cost of maintaining and educating a child for a year in this school and in the county poorhouses. One hundred and twenty dollars each per annum is what the State provides for 300 children in the school on the average, and it has not on the average cost that. Add to this the 100 that go out into families each year (last year the net gain was 115), who have to be clothed, and the cost is $90 per annum for the 400 cared for during the year. This is at a less cost (as shown by the official reports from the counties to the secretary of state) than it is for each child supported in the county poorhouse. This economic showing is very gratifying to the friends of the school. The taxpayer wants figures, and we can show them here, and they cannot be impeached. Add to the result here shown the fact of the shortened term of support by the public, and the showing is very much stronger. Third result: This school has only been in operation about six years, so that the effects upon the children cannot be fully shown. Enough is known, however, to satisfy us that there are very few of the children who go through the school who will not prove as good in morals and life as the average children in the community. I could not place the loss as low as 5 per cent. There are occasionally children sent here who inherit traits from insane parents, who cannot be cured. But they are improper inmates and rather belong to schools for the feeble-minded, and should not be considered in the estimates, though all have been. It is undoubted that the large mass of these children would in time have become permanent dependents and criminals, and it cannot be doubted that through the care and education given them by the agency of this school, the great majority of them will become good citizens. It is expected that the more this school is known to our people the more its influence for good upon the children will be increased. Our people appear satisfied with the results so far, and there is no more popular institution in the State among the people than this. The principles upon which it is based are believed to be right. The prominent features of the system are—

1. The radical separation of innocent from criminal children.
2. Education in a home by the State, under educational and moral influences; this home to be temporary.
3. Restoration to family homes as soon as children are fitted for them.

RESULTS ELSEWHERE OF PREVENTIVE EDUCATION.

I cannot close this outline without calling attention to the effects of educational preventive work elsewhere among the children. There has of late been much done for these children in Germany, France, and England, and the results are very satisfactory.

In *England* it is estimated that over 400,000 have passed through the ragged schools, more than 100,000 have been placed out to trades and service, and more than 50,000 saved from a life of crime. Crime in one county named, in 40 years, has decreased over 300 per cent. Reports say that "this work has been effected in a large measure through the agency of reformatory institutions, industrial schools, training ships, refuges, homes, and such like establishments."

The directors of convict prisons in 1877 in England record the decrease of crime, and say that the development of the criminal classes has received a permanent check by the means adopted in recent times of cutting off the sources of crime by caring for dependent and delinquent children. They say that in 1836, with a population of fifteen millions, 10,125 were sentenced to imprisonment, 3,611 to penal servitude, and 4,273 to transportation to Australia; whereas in 1875, with a population of twenty-three and a half millions, only 9,282 were sentenced to imprisonment and 1,639 to penal servitude. Sir Charles Reed, chairman of the London board of education, in a recent address speaks of the decrease of juvenile crime in that city under the operations of the new system, by which the children of the poor are compelled to attend school. He says:

"The acknowledged diminution of juvenile crime in the metropolis may fairly be traced to the withdrawal of so many children from the streets. In the whole of London the number of arrests on suspicion of children under sixteen was, in 1877–'78, 294 boys and 60 girls, being the smallest number for simple larceny within a decade. * * * We do not, indeed, suppose instruction will, in itself, suffice to work moral reformation, yet it is noteworthy how closely ignorance and crime do work together. In 1877 there were arrested 75,250 persons who could either not read and write at all or could do so only with great difficulty, while only 2,732 were arrested who could read and write well."

Scotland.—In Edinburgh the number of children committed to prison in 1847 was 512, and in 1875 the number was reduced to 131. In Aberdeen the average yearly number of thefts reported to the police during the five years ending 1860 was 1,142, while the average yearly number during the five years ending 1874 was 286, and in September, 1875, not a single case was set down for trial, the like not having occurred for more than a hundred years. The judge, in his remarks, imputed this result to the industrial and reformatory schools. This shows the world need not grow worse if the children are looked to.

Germany.—There are few statistics from this country in my reach. Those from the noted Rauhe Haus for children, near Hamburg, are quite gratifying, showing that a very large percentage of the children are saved by educational and reformatory treatment.

France.—There is to-day no country where there is more intelligent discussion and work in regard to dependent children going on than in France. The Société générale des prisons, composed of some of the ablest men of the country, and the "Conseil supérieur des prisons," an official organization, are earnestly at work devising methods to educate and save these children. There has just been organized a national society to take care of the work for these children, at the head of which is M. Bonjean, a noted judge advocate. Intelligent positions are taken and maintained there by the highest authorities. M. Victor Bournat says:

"Every nation has a profound interest in the good education of all its members; it is the right as well as the duty of the state to enforce this principle; neither the misfortune nor the fault of parents ought to shut the door of the school against their children and deprive them of all moral training; * * * the child badly brought up must necessarily become a cause of trouble to society, since the idler and vagrant will soon pass into the criminal; if the state ignores its right or neglects its duty toward these children it cannot in fairness hold them to a strict account for their acts." The eminent Victor Cousin says: "I am filled with wonder and grief that so much attention is given to prisons and so little to schools." The venerable and distinguished M. Charles Lucas, member of the Institute, has given to correctional education the best work and thought of his life for over the last forty years. Many distinguished French names could be cited showing the deep interest France is taking in the welfare of her 100,000 dependent and delinquent children. The best results may be expected at an early date from that country.

America.—There has been within the past few years a marked reduction injuvenile crime in those great centres of population where the education and care of children have received the most attention. We must look to the next census for results. There are many preventive agencies at work, with excellent results, and many States are moving in the adoption of better methods to educate and save their dependent children.

There can be no question that prevention is safer, and more certain and economical than punishment or reformation, and that the national and State governments cannot act too soon in improving their methods—their systems. And let me say that right here in this District is the place where an example might well be given to the whole country. Michigan, by its system of care and education of dependent children, has supplied the "missing link" in our educational methods, and the District, for its children, might well profit by the example. The institutions of this District are seen by all the world. They stand out in relief more than any others in the land. Here for this people should be secured the fullest republican rights, the purest form of republican government. All the best elements of our educational systems might well be here moulded into the one perfect system, and here might well be made by the General Government a model of educational methods which should show to the world what a free press, free speech, free thought, and free work can accomplish in the New World. And prominent in the educational system might well be an educational home for the children of the poor, like that in Michigan, of which the distinguished and venerable Drouyn de Lhuys, of France, lately said, addressing the Institute of France:

"Behold, gentlemen, the State of Michigan, only about forty years old, has the merit of being in advance of ancient Europe in the inauguration of a new era for indigent children."

(For laws relating to the establishment of the school at Coldwater, see Appendix A.)

Mr. WILSON, chairman of the executive committee, then announced the programme for the next day, and the department adjourned until the evening.

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY EVENING.

WASHINGTON, *February* 19, 1880.

The department reassembled at 7.30 P. M.

Hon. J. H. SMART, of Indiana, submitted a report prepared by him on the "Best system of schools for a State," as follows:

THE BEST SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS FOR A STATE.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

I. The school a State institution.— As viewed by the people of the United States, one of the parts of the United States called a State or Commonwealth is an institution which has for its purpose the realization of freedom in all its citizens.

It must exercise all those functions necessary to this end except such as are delegated to the General Government of the United States.

Rational freedom cannot be realized without general education.

Experience has shown that voluntary associational enterprise is not adequate to secure general education, and that education will not become general unless it is fostered by a system of wise laws.

It is, therefore, the duty of the State to provide by law for a thorough and efficient system of schools which shall be equally open to all.

II. The system must be compulsory.— It is not enough that the State makes by its laws a system of schools possible. The system must be a compulsory system. The State should compel the location, establishment, and maintenance of a sufficient number of schools for the education of all its children.

If it were left to each locality to establish schools or not at its will, the system would in no sense become a general system. A permissive system would soon become no system at all.

III. The doctrine of equalization.—All the citizens of the State are governed by the same system of laws. The laws of the State are an outgrowth of the intelligence of the citizens. A limitation of intelligence is a limitation of citizenship, and ignorance on the part of some is an abridgment of the liberty of others. Hence every citizen is benefited by and therefore has an interest in the intelligence of every other citizen.

Thus an equalization of benefits arises from a uniform school system; upon this is based the doctrine of equal obligation.

In the maintenance of a general system of schools the State should therefore establish the principle that the property of the State should educate the children of the State. It should therefore levy and collect a tax upon the property of its citizens, and the proceeds of this tax should be equally distributed among the children of the State, and should be used for tuition purposes only.

IV. The executive agents of the State.—The State should appoint for itself suitable agents or officers, by which a general inspection and supervision of the whole system can be secured; but in the formation of a school system and in the management of schools the State must operate chiefly through certain local agencies. These agencies must be limited in their operation by certain definite geographical boundaries. In each of these localities the State must provide for the appointment of necessary local agents or officers, by means of whom schools can be established and maintained. While each locality may be left to select its own school officers, the State should require this selection to be made, and it should compel the officers to execute its will in regard to the establishment and maintenance of schools under suitable penalties.

V. Unification in township, town, and city.—In most States local corporations for municipal purposes have already been formed; these are called cities, towns, and townships. For obvious prudential and economic reasons the geographical units of school corporations should be coincident with these civil corporations. There should thus be formed within each municipal corporation a school corporation independent of it, but conterminous with it. These school corporations may be combined, as in a county, parish, or district, for certain purposes; but they should be in a measure independent and should form the units of the system.

As a matter of convenience, subdistricts may be formed in school corporations. Unequal distribution of population, the condition of roads, bridges, &c., make it impracticable to fix by general statute the geographical boundaries of subdistricts. As population increases or shifts, and as the condition of roads and bridges is improved, frequent changes in the boundaries of subdistricts must be made; this is especially true in new States. If these changes in boundaries of subdistricts could be made without limitation by the people themselves, schools would be multiplied almost indefinitely. Hence, districts should be formed and houses located under the authority of the school boards of cities, towns, and townships, and not under the authority of each subdistrict. In each township, town, or city, all the subdistricts should form one system and no more, and should be under the control of one board of school officers. The necessities of the case in respect to the location of schools, in respect to the combination of districts for the establishment of central graded schools, and economy in the matter of levying local taxes and in the management of the revenues arising therefrom, require a unification of all the schools in the township, town, or city under one board of control.

VI. Extent of local control.—The local agents may be permitted to exercise discretionary power in respect to those things which do not necessarily affect the quality of the school. Hence they may be left to locate and construct their own school-houses, and to supply them with furniture, apparatus, &c., through the means of local taxation. But the State should compel this work to be done under such safeguards and restrictions as will secure a sufficient number of houses, in proper locations, with due regard to such sanitary conditions that the health of the children will not be liable to injury. They may be left also to prescribe the course of study, with certain limitations, and to make all useful rules and regulations for the thorough organization, management, and discipline of the schools.

The local authorities may employ and contract with teachers, and fix their wages, under such restrictions in respect to their examination and supervision as will secure for each of the schools of the State thorough and efficient instruction and discipline.

VII. Scope of the school.—Each school corporation should be required to establish and maintain such advanced schools as the attainments of its children may require, and to supplement the State tax by a local tax to maintain these schools. The necessity for giving cities and towns the power to establish schools of a higher grade has been so often discussed that the committee deems it unnecessary to do more than express the opinion that the establishment of such schools is not only wise, but necessary. The necessity for such schools in townships or sparsely settled towns, however, is not so generally recognized. The committee, therefore, expresses its opinion that authority should be given to the school boards of townships also to establish central graded schools. By the establishment of such schools there would be found an educational centre in each township, from which would go out an influence that would be of great advantage to the entire community. Such schools would not only be a benefit to those who attend them, but they would also relieve the district schools to such an extent that much more efficient work could be done in them.

VIII. The relation of the teacher.—The school system being general and the schools being State institutions, the teachers should be regarded as agents of the State to execute its will rather than the will of the localities in which the schools are situated.

The State should provide agencies for fixing a uniform standard by which the qualifications of all the teachers can be tested.

This work cannot be left exclusively to local control.

While the local authorities may select the teachers, the selection must be made from among those that have been duly examined and licensed by professional experts acting under the authority of the State.

The State should also provide the means by which the work done by the teachers in the school rooms can be intelligently inspected and supervised.

Inasmuch as the true test of a teacher's value must be made in the school room, all licenses issued to those having had no experience should be regarded as probationary licenses, and the same officers who examine and license teachers should be required to inspect the schools.

Since no system of schools can be properly maintained without the education of teachers at the expense of the State, the establishment of normal schools and teachers' institutes under the control of State authority is required.

IX. Special schools.—Inasmuch as children who are blind, deaf and dumb, or idiotic have a right, in common with other children, to demand from the State educational advantages, it is no less the duty of the State to establish suitable institutions for their education and training than to establish its common schools.

Such institutions should be based as much upon the idea of rightful demand as upon the idea of benevolence. They should be, as far as is practicable, subject to the same general principles that control and govern the other educational institutions of the State. All special institutions that receive the benefaction of the State should be subject to inspection by suitable State officers appointed for that purpose.

THE SYSTEM OUTLINED.

I. Of the State superintendent.—The State needs an agent to take general supervision of its schools and of its school funds and revenues. It needs a skilful schoolmaster general to visit the various localities and awaken interest in public education; to advise subordinate officers and teachers in respect to their duties; to interpret the school law to them; to determine certain matters of general interest that may be taken to him on appeal; and to inform the law making power of the State concerning the condition of the schools and the reforms which are needed to make them more efficient and valuable. A commander in chief is no more needed for the proper organization, equipment, and management of a great army than a general superintendent is needed for a great system of common schools.

The efficient performance of the multifarious duties required of a State superintendent of public instruction necessitates experience in the performance of those duties. The successful administration of the office depends also in a very large degree upon the confidence which teachers and school officers have in the judgment and in the ability of the State superintendent. A person may perform as efficient service in some official relations during the first week of his administration as during the last week of it, even though he may be unknown to most of the people whom he serves. This is not true, however, of a State superintendent of public instruction. It is desirable, therefore, that the term of service of the State superintendent should be not less than four years. He may be elected by the people, or appointed by the governor or by the State board of education.

II. Of the State board of education.—An examination of the school systems of the several States makes it apparent that there should be associated with the chief executive school officer a suitable advisory council.

This council should form a State board of education. It should be empowered to grant life certificates to persons of superior scholarship and high professional ability; it should exercise supervisory control over the higher educational institutions supported by the State, and especially over the State normal schools; it should examine and license all local officers authorized to examine and license teachers in the various school corporations of the State, and it should have the power to instruct and direct these local examiners in regard to the standard of qualification required of candidates for license, and in regard to the preparation of questions to be used in their examination. It should also exercise some control over the management of county or district institutes established for the instruction of teachers.

From the duties required of the State board of education it will be seen that its members should be selected from among the profession chiefly, and the various school interests of the State should be represented upon the board. The board may properly be composed of the State superintendent of public instruction, the governor of the State, the State's attorney general, the president of one of the State normal schools, the president of the State university, if one exists, with not less than three other persons who are engaged in teaching or in the business of supervising schools.

III. Of the county superintendent.—In order to secure thoroughness and efficiency on the part of the teachers, their work must be systematically and intelligently supervised. It is impossible for the State supertendent or for the State board of education to thoroughly supervise the work of all the teachers employed under a State system. The State must depend upon local agencies for this necessary work. The work cannot be left to the non-professional local school boards already provided for, but it must be performed by professional experts, properly licensed by State authority.

The necessity for local supervision is already so generally recognized by city school authorities that almost every city in the country has its city superintendent. Thorough and efficient supervision has been the chief agency in bringing the city systems to their present standard. But the necessity for the supervision of ungraded schools in townships has not been so generally recognized. If cities, with the advantages of well graded schools, of a long term, and of well trained and experienced teachers, need supervision and derive so much benefit from it, the ungraded schools in townships, with all their disadvantages, cannot be expected to do superior work without it. The arguments in favor of supervision of ungraded schools in townships are unanswerable. No prudent man would employ a gang of workmen on a farm or in the shop without devising some means by which their work could be efficiently supervised. Every mill must have its manager, every railroad its superintendent, every contractor his head workman, every merchant his chief clerk, and every machine shop its master mechanic. In every business of life, as well as in every department of government, there must be systematic organization of labor, with intelligent supervision. The highest purposes of ungraded schools in townships cannot be realized without such supervision.

Thorough supervision necessitates frequent visitation. The number of schools which one person can efficiently supervise depends very much upon varying local circumstances, among which are density of population, the advancement of the schools, and the condition of roads, bridges, &c. The territorial divisions for this purpose may thus be large or small, as circumstances may require. But, inasmuch as the various townships are generally combined for certain civil purposes and form counties, it is believed that, in most of the States at least, each county should form a territorial division for the purpose of securing supervision of district schools. The system of county superintendency is, therefore, commended. The county superintendent should be required to visit and inspect all the schools under his supervision at least twice each year. The county superintendent should, with the exceptions hereinafter mentioned, examine and license the teachers, under the authority of the State board of education. He should have authority to revoke licenses issued by him, for proper cause, on petition of the patrons of a school. He should advise the local school officers in respect to their duties. He should hold county and township meetings for the instruction of the teachers, under the authority of the State board of education. He should hear and determine appeals from the decisions of subordinate officers in certain local matters, and he should be a medium of communication between the State superintendent and the subordinate school officers of the State. The same reasons that make it advisable that the State superintendent should hold his office for a long term make it advisable that the county superintendent should hold office for a long term. He may be elected by the people, or appointed by the county board of education or by some other competent local authority, but no one should be eligible to the office of county superintendent who does not hold a certificate of qualification from the State board of education or from the State superintendent of public instruction.

IV. Of city and town examining boards.— For obvious reasons cities and towns employing a city or town superintendent should be exempt from the supervision of the county superintendent, and the teachers of such corporations should be examined by a board of examiners appointed by some city or town authority, and not by the county superintendent. But such examining boards should operate under the same restrictions in respect to the examination of teachers that govern the county superintendents.

V. Of the county board of education.—The school officers of the several corporations in a county may be organized into a county board of education, with the county superintendent as its president or secretary. This board might have authority to appoint the county superintendent, but its additional powers should be chiefly advisory. Such a board might consider the general needs and wants of the schools of a county, and make such general rules and regulations as might be thought advisable. By mutual agreement the representatives of the various corporations might coöperate with each other in respect to text books, reports, teachers' meetings, &c., to the end that the efficiency of the schools might be increased.

VI. Of local boards of school trustees.— The State should provide for the election or appointment by some competent local authority of a suitable board of control for the schools in each township, town, or city. These boards, although selected by the people, should be the agents of the State to execute its law in respect to the schools.

These school boards, being compelled to establish and maintain a sufficient number of schools for the education of the children in their respective corporations, must necessarily have the power to levy such local taxes within certain limitations prescribed by law as they may deem necessary for the purpose.

They must have power to prescribe a course of study; to grade their schools; select, employ, and contract with their teachers, being limited in their selection to those who have been duly licensed; to fix their compensation and to dismiss them for cause; and to make such rules and regulations in regard to the schools as may be necessary to secure efficiency and economy in their management.

School boards of cities and towns of a certain class should have power to appoint a city or town superintendent.

School boards should each consist, ordinarily, of three members. Cities and towns of a certain class, however, should be permitted to increase the number if found necessary. The members of each board should be elected for not less than three years, and no more than one-third of the members of a board should retire from service each year.

VII. Of the power of the patrons.—The patrons of a school attached to a district in a township should have power to meet and petition the school board in regard to the building, removal, or repairs of a school-house, and in regard to the formation of a new school district. They should also have the power to petition the school board of a township to dismiss a teacher, and to petition the county superintendent to revoke a teacher's license for cause. The moderator or director should be the medium of communication between the patrons of the schools and the school board of the township, and should, under the direction of the school board, be the immediate custodian of the school-house and school premises when not in use for school purposes. For obvious reasons no such meetings should be provided for in cities and towns.

VIII. Of the selection of teachers.—The teachers should be selected and appointed by the respective school boards of townships, towns, and cities, and not by the patrons of the schools in the subdistricts. A more hearty coöperation on the part of the patrons of the school, greater efficiency and more perfect impartiality on the part of the teachers toward the pupils, and longer tenure of service for the teachers will be secured by this method of appointment rather than by election by vote of the patrons of the schools.

IX. Of the licensing of teachers.—No person should be permitted to teach in the public schools without possessing a valid license issued by some proper State or local authority, which license should be issued only upon a thorough examination. The purpose of this examination being to protect the children as well as the treasury, it is not enough to provide that persons who teach in the public schools without a license should forfeit all compensation for services so rendered, but local school officers should be absolutely prohibited from permitting unlicensed persons to teach or to take charge of a school. Persons should not be allowed to learn the business of teaching school at the expense of the children.

X. Of moral character.—Inasmuch as moral worth is of quite as much value as scholarship, the law should require all persons applying for a license to teach in the public schools not only to be examined in respect to scholarship, but to present to the examining authority satisfactory evidence that they possess such qualities of mind and heart as would lead them to cultivate in their pupils those high moral qualities so essential to successful living.

XI. Of the limitation of licenses.—For reasons already stated, all licenses granted to those who have had no experience should be regarded as trial licenses, and until teachers have obtained a good degree of professional skill, as shown by successful work in the school room, the law of frequent examination should be applied to them, and their licenses should be for but a brief period.

When such skill has been attained, local authorities should have power, by and with the approval of the chief educational officer of the

State, to issue licenses for a longer period, say for eight years. Such persons as are found, upon a thorough and critical examination by the State board of education, to possess eminent scholarship and high professional skill should be licensed by such board for life.

All licenses issued by any examining authority should be limited to the territory over which such examining authority has supervisory control; and each examining authority should have power to revoke licenses issued within its jurisdiction, but only for certain specified causes, and upon fair trial.

XII. Of the tenure of office of teachers.—The question of the continuous service of the teachers is regarded as a very important one. The law should, so far as practicable, encourage such continuance. In all the provisions of law in regard to the time of electing school officers, to their term of service, and to the issuance of licenses to teachers after suitable probation, and to the mode of selecting and appointing them, the desirability of a long term of service for teachers should be kept steadily in view.

XIII. Of the independent authority of teachers.—Teachers should possess some independent power in the management and in the instruction of their schools.

Within the limits prescribed by law and by the rules and regulations adopted by the respective school boards, the teacher's authority in the school room should, for the time being, be the supreme authority. Within these limitations teachers should have authority to make their own rules and regulations, discipline the school in their own way, and use their own methods of instruction.

A SYNOPSIS OF THE SYSTEM.

I. Territorial division.
II. Officers.
III. Institutions, general.
IV. Institutions, higher and special.

I. Territorial divisions: (*a*) State, (*b*) county, (*c*) township, town, or city, (*d*) school district.

II. Officers: (*a*) State superintendent, (*b*) State board of education, (*c*) county superintendents, (*d*) county board of education, (*e*) trustees of townships, towns, or cities, (*f*) director or moderator of districts in townships.

III. Institutions, general: (*a*) City and town graded schools, (*b*) city training schools, (*c*) ungraded district schools in townships, (*d*) graded schools for townships, (*e*) professional associations: (1) County institutes, (2) county institutes for teachers, under supervision of county superintendent, (3) township and town institutes for teachers under supervision of county superintendent.

IV. Higher and special institutions: (*a*) State university, (*b*) State normal schools, (*c*) agricultural and industrial schools, (*d*) special schools: (1) School for the blind, (2) school for the deaf and dumb, (3) school for the idiotic, (4) school for orphans, (5) reformatory schools.

I. Territorial divisions.

A. State: (1) Should compel the establishment of schools; (2) should provide for a uniform system; (3) should fix the minimum length of the school year; (4) should fix certain prescribed subjects of study; (5) should exercise general superintendence; (6) should levy a general tax; (7) should provide for the proper management of the school funds; (8) should provide for the professional education of teachers; (9) should establish reformatory and benevolent schools; (10) may establish universities and professional schools.

B. County: (1) Should exercise a limited general supervisory control over its schools; (2) should appoint a county superintendent; (3) should have a county board of education; (4) may secure uniformity in text books.

C. City, town, or township: (1) Should be left to the local control of its schools; (2) should select its officers; (3) should build its own houses; (4) should select its own teachers from among those that have been duly qualified under the laws of the State; (5) should be permitted to levy local taxes for the building of houses, &c.; (6) should be permitted to levy local taxes for the continuance of the schools beyond the minimum period fixed by the State; (7) should be permitted to levy local taxes for the maintenance of schools of an advanced grade.

D. Districts: (1) Districts should be formed for the purpose of localizing the patrons of the school; (2) should have an advisory power in the selection of teachers and the erection, removal, or repair of schoolhouses; (3) districts in cities and towns should not be formed by any provision of the general statute, but their formation should be left to the discretion of the school boards of cities and towns.

II. Officers.

A. State superintendent: (1) Should be a constitutional officer; (2) should be appointed by the governor or by the State board of education, or be elected by the people; (3) should serve for a period of not less than four years; (4) should have general superintendence of the schools; (5) should supervise the management of the school funds and revenues; (6) should make reports to the governor or to the legislature; (7) should receive necessary reports from subordinate officers and prepare blank forms; (8) should construe the school law; (9) should hear appeals in certain cases; (10) should visit county institutes; (11) should have authority to call school officers together in various localities; (12) should be a member of the State board of education; (13) should have some supervisory control over institutions for the professional education of teachers; (14) should exercise some supervisory control over the State benevolent and reformatory institutions.

B. State board of education: (1) Should hold office by virtue of some official educational position; (2) should constitute an advisory council to the State superintendent; (3) should examine teachers for State certificates; (4) should examine and license candidates for the office of county superintendent; (5) should prepare questions for the use of county superintendents in the examination of teachers; (6) should have power to instruct county superintendents in regard to the examination of teachers and to the management of institutes.

C. County superintendent: (1) Should be a teacher of recognized ability; (2) should be appointed by the county board of education or elected by the people; (3) should be required to hold a license from the State board of education; (4) should hold office for a period of not less than four years; (5) should have general supervision of schools, except in certain cities and towns employing a city or town superintendent; (6) should visit the schools in the county, except in such cities and towns; (7) should examine and license teachers under the authority of the State board of education, except for such cities and towns; (8) should have power to revoke licenses for cause; (9) should conduct county and township institutes for the instruction of the teachers under his supervision; (10) should carry out the instructions of the State board of education; (11) should be the executive officer of the county board of education; (12) should receive reports from subordinate school officers; (13) should transmit reports to the State superintendent of public instruction; (14) should be a medium of communication between the State superintendent and the State board and subordinate school officers; (15) should hear appeals from decisions of local officers in respect to certain local affairs.

D. County board of education: (1) Should be composed of the school trustees of corporations which are under the supervision of the county superintendent; (2) should consider the general needs and wants of the schools under its charge; (3) should seek to unify the school work; (4) should arrange a course of study; (5) should make general rules and regulations in regard to the employment of teachers, time of commencing schools, the government of the schools, and the conduct of the teachers and pupils, &c.; (6) may adopt text books.

E. Trustees of townships, towns, and cities (first, trustees of townships and towns): (1) Should be three for each corporation; (2) should be appointed by some competent local authority or elected by the people; (3) should serve for three years, one retiring annually; (4) should receive school revenues; (5) should have power to levy local taxes, within specified limitations, for grounds, buildings, furniture, repairs, supplies, apparatus, &c., and for library purposes and for additional tuition purposes; (6) should be compelled to locate, establish, and maintain a sufficient number of schools for a certain number of months in each year; (7) should have power to abolish old school districts, create new ones, build and remove houses; (8) should be compelled to make provision for instruction in certain prescribed branches; (9) should have power to establish township or town graded schools; (10) should have power to provide instruction in branches additional to those prescribed by law; (11) should employ and contract with teachers, being restricted in their selection to those who have been duly licensed by competent authority; (12) should properly account to proper officers for all school revenues that come into their hands; (13) should receive reports from teachers and should transmit reports to the county superintendent and other county officers; (14) should have authority to dismiss refractory pupils from school; (15) should be prohibited from contracting debt; (16) should carry out the orders of the county board of education in respect to course of study and text books.

(Second, trustees of cities and towns of a certain class) appointment, powers, and duties same as other trustees, except: (1) The number of trustees may be increased; (2) they should provide for the examination of their own teachers by a suitably constituted committee; (3) may appoint a town or city superintendent; (4) should make their own course of study; (5) should make their rules and regulations; (6) should select their own text books; (7) should grade their schools and provide for promotion of pupils from grade to grade; (8) should be exempt from the control of the county board and the supervision of the county superintendent; (9) but they may be compelled to make certain reports to the county superintendent, as are other trustees; (10) may establish city or town training schools for the instruction of teachers.

F. Directors or moderators of districts in townships: (1) Should be appointed annually by voters at school meetings; (2) should preside at school meetings and record their proceedings, and should communicate the wishes of the patrons to the trustees.

(For an outline of the school systems of the various States, forming a part of Mr. Smart's report, see Appendix B.)

Mr. WICKERSHAM said that, though a member of the committee, he had not participated in the preparation of the report, and, so far as he was concerned, the whole credit of the paper, which was considerable, belonged to the chairman, Mr. Smart. It was on a practical and very important matter, and should be printed and considered hereafter.

Mr. PHILBRICK said that the paper just read reminded him, by its exhaustive consideration of the subject, of a paper prepared a few years ago on the "American system of education," by Dr. Harris, he supposed, and which had been translated and widely read in Europe. He (Dr. Philbrick) had included this paper in his Catalogue of the Educational Exhibit at Paris in 1878. The paper just read, giving the framework or organization of educational systems as they now exist or as they should exist in the several States, must be of permanent value and he thought should take rank with its predecessor, the paper referred to.

General HOVEY hoped that the author of the report would amend it before printing, so as to exclude the idea of having school superintendents and boards appointed. It is safer, he thought, that they should in all cases be elected by the people. The evil effect of the appointment system could be seen, if one cared to study the subject, in the executive Departments of the National Government, where the appointees soon learn that safety lies in the direction of having no opinions of their own. The same evil influence operates upon school officers who owe their position to the favor of some individual. They are apt to become mere echoes of the men who appoint them. Besides, the men who appoint are usually politicians, with, presumably, little fitness to select school officers anyhow, and then they are under great temptation to use these school positions to pay off their political friends. He hoped the department would not oppose the American idea of popular election for school officers.

Messrs. Harris, Beard, and Hoyte made further remarks on the paper; when, upon motion of General Eaton, it was ordered to be reported, with the approval of the department, to the national association in July.

Mr. Hoyte then submitted a resolution commending Mr. Randall's paper on the education of neglected children. Adopted.

Dr. D. C. Gilman addressed the department on the subject of "University education," with special reference to the plans and methods of the Johns Hopkins University, of which he is the president. The address contained an exposition of the principles which have governed the foundation of the Johns Hopkins University and of the hopes by which its managers are inspired. After a reference to the reasons why universities are of special interest to Americans just at this time, the speaker pointed out the difficulties which beset such organizations from the historical traditions which we inherit, from the false nomenclature which has been adopted, from disagreement as to the proper source of authority (whether it is church or state or private enterprise), from an inadequate apprehension of the necessary cost, and from the difficulty in finding eminent professors in a period when so many other opportunities of intellectual advancement, ecclesiastical, political, editorial, literary, and scientific, absorb the best scholars. Attention was next called to the need of maintaining a clear distinction between universities and their allies, the college on the one hand, the learned academy on the other; to the worth of original investigators and researchers for their double influence in advancing knowledge and in attracting scholars; to the importance of liberal supplies of books and instruments rather than of showy buildings; to the value of university training to those who receive it; finally, to the great benefit conferred upon society at large by the amplest encouragement of literature, art, and science. The opportunities of this country were then referred to: its freedom in such matters from the control of one church or one government; its readiness to receive and act upon new impulses; its hospitality to merit wherever discovered; and its rapid advancement in material posperity. The speaker then described from his acquaintance with young men and from the study of biography the influence which universities have had in discovering, developing, and bringing forward young men of power and talent. He dwelt at some length on the marvelous advances now making in mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, and medicine, as well as in the study of history, language, logic, philosophy, and religion, and the part which universities are taking in this progress.

In the opinion of the speaker the world is now going through a period as important in the advancement of society as that which we call the Renaissance. Discoveries follow one another with marvellous rapidity. Light shines where darkness has prevailed. Steam and electricity are to us what movable types and the mariner's compass were in the fifteenth century. One or two or three centuries hence the historian will look back upon this last half of the nineteenth century as we look back to the fifteenth century, and will see what we are too near to appreciate fully, but of which we are all more or less conscious: that we live in a transition period, when mankind is advancing with a rapidity never known before. He will see that in our day the fetters of human thought fell away, and that better health, better education, and better morals were developed in old societies, and were carried to new states by the triumphant power of Christian civilization. We hear the revival of letters spoken of as dating from the overthrow of Constantinople and the migration to Italy of companies of learned Greeks. Let us not forget that two hundred years before the Reformation and the revival of letters, one hundred and fifty years before the invention of printing, universities began to flourish. In their walls were planted and nurtured the germs which blossomed in the discovery of a new world, in the restoration of classic letters, in the beginning of modern literature, in the initiation of scientific research, in the diffusion of books by the press, and in the emancipation of the human mind from dogmatic authority. Let us see to it that in our day likewise full scope is given to the loftiest and ablest plans of university organization.

Remarks were made on Dr. Gilman's paper by Messrs. Shepherd, Marble, and Hoyt.

The department then adjourned to Friday, the 20th, at 9 A. M.

After adjournment the committee on the proposed "national council of education" held a session at the Ebbitt House. They will report to the national association in July.

THIRD SESSION—FRIDAY MORNING.

WASHINGTON, *February* 20, 1880.

The department met pursuant to adjournment, and was called to order by the president, Mr. Newell, at 9 o'clock.

Mr. DICKINSON, of Massachusetts, read a paper on the high school question;[1] after which

Rev. RUSSELL A. OLIN explained to the department the apparatus known as the

TIME GLOBE.

Gentlemen of the association, the apparatus which by the courtesy of the association we have the pleasure of introducing to your notice is made up of two very common instruments, a clock and a globe, with the value and uses of which everybody is supposed to be familiar. Whatever title, therefore, this piece may have to your special attention and interest as representing the cause of education in its progressive demands, will not be found in the mere juxtaposition of these common instruments, but in their realized mechanical coöperation, the result of which, we shall hope to show, has been greatly to simplify some of the fundamental questions of geography as taught in our schools; in fact, as an eminent scientist has said, "to illustrate more problems connected with a rudimentary knowledge of this science and in a simpler manner than any other apparatus available at anything like its cost."

The instrument is called the time globe, concerning the construction of which, before proceeding to speak of its uses, I ask your indulgence while I quote from the unqualified indorsement of Dr. B. S. Lyman, the well known professor of astronomy and physics in Yale College. After a critical examination he speaks of it, first, as "an admirable combination of a large globe and a good timepiece, each as convenient and as well adapted to its proper uses as if separate," and the two together as "forming a piece of apparatus both useful and ornamental, and a desideratum alike in the school room, office, and family."

He then calls special attention to "the excellent time movement, durable, powerful, easily wound and regulated, and of thorough workmanship throughout."

Next he notices the obvious fact that "all parts of the mounting are rigid and strong, yet light, and the whole at once firm, stable, elegant, and convenient, the entire globe surface being exposed to view, and the plate glass clock dial sufficiently conspicuous without cutting off a view of the globe or the globe of it."

And also that "the placing of the time movement inside of the globe, while it is conveniently wound and regulated from without, insures its

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[1] Mr. Dickinson's paper has not been furnished for publication.

[illegible]

Then, in regard to up and down, east and west, about which there is even greater general misapprehension, the time globe gives a continuous demonstration that these are not absolute but relative directions; up and down being always directly from and towards the centre of the earth, while east is always the direction of the earth's motion, changing at every point, west being its opposite. By contrasting the true east and west directions with the movement of the dial hands, the difference may at any time be readily seen between true and apparent east and west.

(3) We next call special attention to the fact that the time globe wonderfully simplifies, while at the same time it universalizes, the notation of time. The association will observe that the necessity for the extensive construction of clocks with complex machinery and a large number of dials to exhibit the time at different places on the earth is at once obviated by this significant achievement.

The most common of the natural indicators of time is the earth itself in daily rotation on its axis. What simpler mechanical representation of this fact can there be than a globe revolving at the same rate, with a scale appended by which to determine at a glance the extent to which, at any time, the daily revolution of the earth has proceeded at any and every point on its surface?

In accomplishing this the time globe becomes a universal timekeeper. Starting at 12 o'clock midnight, the 24 hours, each with its 60 minutes, are accurately marked off on the equatorial or universal dial. Then, as in the great clock of nature, the earth combines in every meridian an hour and minute hand; by tracing the meridian of any place to the equatorial dial, its true time will always be found accurately recorded. The local time, as indicated on the clock dial, may be verified for the meridian of the place on the universal dial, as also, in like manner, the corresponding time of every other place on the earth.

We submit that the pupil is entitled to the great benefit of this wonderful achievement as an important stepping-stone to the comprehension of the ordinary arbitrary and complex method of noting time. The ambiguous divisions of the ordinary time dial into twelve parts, each of these into five other, the movement of the minute hand twelve times as fast as the hour hand, and to the right rather than to the left, bear no resemblance whatever to nature, but, being purely arbitrary, have in most cases to be learned and used long before they are understood.

(4) As another interesting and instructive result of the time globe's realized automatic motion, the pupil is readily enabled to locate any place on the earth with reference to the daily phenomena of morning, evening, noon, midnight, sunrise, sunset, forenoon, and afternoon.

For it is evident that, as the earth turns on its axis to the east, these phenomena will have a corresponding reproduction upon the globe. The shading of the night half of the universal dial so facilitates this as to leave little for the imagination to do. The fact also of events taking place on the eastern continent and announced to us on the western, as is frequently done, before their apparent real date, is readily comprehended by the help of this microcosmic exhibition of the daily phenomena.

(5) Another useful result for educational purposes, following from the peculiar construction of the time globe, is the great simplification it offers of the problem of converting difference in time into difference in longitude, and vice versa.

The universal dial being also a great circle, its time divisions bear fixed relations to its circular divisions, every fourth one of its 1,440 minute divisions coinciding with each degree mark, and, of course, every hour division with every fifteenth degree mark. The difference in longitudinal distance, therefore, between any two places, may be read off indifferently either in time or in longitudinal notation.

(6) By reason of its continual movement the time globe illustrates with great simplicity another difficult matter for the pupil to comprehend, viz, the change of date.

Having called attention to the fact that the maritime powers of the world have agreed to regard the 180th degree of longitude from Greenwich as introducing each commercial day by its passage under the midnight meridian of the celestial sphere, it will only be necessary to fix the fact in the mind of the pupil that this 180th terrestrial meridian leads on each new day; that, consequently, at the moment of coincidence there is but one commercial day on the earth, while at every other moment of the 24 hours there are parts of two days on the earth—one day in progress, and measured by all that part of the earth's surface included between the midnight meridian and the 180th terrestrial meridian, in the direction of the earth's motion, and the other the previous day, diminishing, and covering all the rest of the earth.

In this connection we beg leave to call attention to the ease with which the illustration may be conveyed of the cause of the long twilights in the vicinity of the poles, and of the comparatively sudden transitions between light and darkness on or near the equator. The increasing rapidity of the earth's motion from the poles to the equator is represented to the eye by the enlarging angle between any two meridians.

And, finally, the value of this piece as an apparatus for illustrating by object teaching the passage of the earth around the sun in the plane of the ecliptic, may be seen from the fact that, when standing in position through the year, the equinoctial and solstitial phenomena are accurately reproduced on its surface, as also the phenomenon of the unequal duration of the days and nights from one equinox to the other. At the time of the summer solstice the sun, standing over the Tropic of Cancer, will be observed to reach with its rays beyond the north pole to the Arctic Circle. Thence it will gradually approach the plane of the equator, pass it at the autumnal equinox, and proceed on its course until, at the winter solstice, standing over the Tropic of Capricorn, it embraces the south pole in its light, reaching beyond with its rays to the Antarctic Circle, from whence these phenomena will be repeated in reversed order.

The great need of any additional simplification of the principles of geography by object illustration has been sorely felt by every conscientious teacher of this science. While in its descriptive parts geography is readily mastered, there is, perhaps, no science taught in our common schools which in its principles, especially those bearing upon its astronomical relations, is less understood; the usual computations in a common almanac of the results following upon the earth's motion, such as the ever changing hours of sunrise, sunset, the equinoxes and solstices, being to the great mass as cabalistic as the signs of the zodiac.

The importance of the time globe achievement—"following upon a multitude of failures"—as wonderfully simplifying the principles of practical geography, may not only be gathered from the eminent names of those who have so warmly indorsed it, but will be obvious to every teacher upon examination of the instrument.

(For a representation of the time globe, see last page of this circular.)

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN ITS RELATIONS TO ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Dr. J. D. **Philbrick**, of Massachusetts, then read the following paper:

Education of every kind and degree is comprised in two great classes:

(1) General education, which includes in its scope at once the body, the intellect, and the heart. It strengthens, develops, and elevates the individual, and prepares for society vigorous, enlightened, and honest men; in the terse phrase of John Stuart Mill, "it makes capable and cultivated men."

(2) Technical education, which is designed to qualify persons for the exercise of a profession or trade. Its aim is to fit men for some special mode of gaining their livelihood. In its highest grades it is concerned with those professions which are called liberal; it forms in its lower stage the artisan or craftsman.

Both these kinds of education are indispensable, and where there is a lack of either there is imperfection and perhaps danger. The educational system of a country should, therefore, correspond to this division, and it will be complete or incomplete in proportion as it accomplishes the objects, for each individual, of both general and technical education.

Nothing is more striking in the educational movements in the most advanced nations than what has been done in recent years, and is now doing, by governments, municipalities, industrial organizations, and private enterprise, to provide the means of technical education of every grade and description. This is done with the twofold view, first, to promote the well being of the individual, to render every man, however humble his condition, not only self-supporting, but comfortable and prosperous; second, to promote the general interests of productive industry, and to meet the increasing demands for higher professional skill which the progress of civilization creates.

In our own country technical education is as yet but very imperfectly developed, especially in its industrial department. To be convinced of this, one has only to compare the provisions for the instruction of youth and adults in the arts and trades in our oldest and largest cities with those of Paris, Berlin, Vienna, and London.

For a few years past the problem in technical education which has especially occupied public attention in this country has been the relation of the public school with skilled labor and manual employments. The complaint is made that the schools of the present day tend to unfit the pupils for gaining their livelihood by manual labor, for which the large majority are inevitably destined.

No intelligent person can deny that the growth, development, and progress of our public free school system during the last quarter of a century have been little less than marvellous. Witness the vast increase of schools, of teachers, and of expenditures for educational purposes; of normal schools, of teachers' institutes and other organizations for raising the qualifications of teachers; the improvements in supervision, in schoolhouses, in text books, in courses of study, and in all the appliances of instruction; in the methods of teaching and discipline; in classification, grading, and attendance; and, finally, the multiplication and enlargement of free schools for instruction in the higher branches. In all this there is, doubtless, from the point of view of general education, reasonable ground for gratification. M. Buisson, the eminent French educator, meant it not as flattery when, in beginning his remarkable report on our system, he quoted the saying, "A republican government needs the whole power of education," and added, "These words of Montesquieu have, perhaps, never found a more striking application than in the subject which we are now about to consider."

And yet the charge is made and reiterated in various quarters that our schools of the most advanced type, where the organization is most complete, where the attendance is most prolonged and the instruction most efficient, fail in practical results: that they educate the mass of the pupils out of their sphere, and send them out into the world with a distaste for manual labor and unfitted for the life for which they are destined. The substance of the complaint is, not that the pupils are sent out uninstructed, not that they are wanting in intelligence and mental culture, but that they are graduated without possessing the practical knowledge and manual skill requisite to earn a living, and without the disposition developed to acquire such knowledge and skill.

Those who take this view of the results of the typical common school of the present day do not agree as to the modification demanded. On the one hand, there are those who advocate the reduction of the curriculum to the merest rudiments of instruction. They would throw overboard all the costly machinery of the modern school system, and return to primitive simplicity, ignorance, and contentment. On the other hand, however, the more numerous and influential class of these complainers propose that the schools shall be made to take the place, to a certain extent, of the apprenticeship which in former times afforded an open avenue to the arts and trades, but which the modern revolution in industrial pursuits has partially broken down.

Hence has arisen the important question as to the proper adjustment of the relations of technical education to the public school, which is at present so prominently before the public mind, and which it is the purpose of this paper to consider in some of its bearings.

And, first, it is to be observed that if our system, at its best, has failed to meet in a satisfactory manner the wants of those for whom it is intended, it does not stand alone in this respect. Its scope and methods are substantially those of the best systems in the most advanced nations. The two chief points of difference are these: First, our pupils who complete the course leave school at a somewhat maturer age than do the pupils of the best foreign elementary schools, not taking into account supplementary day and evening courses which are obligatory in some countries; and, secondly, a large proportion of our pupils drop out before completing the course, which is not the case where education is practically compulsory.

Certainly the charge that our schools carry their pupils too far in general education and educate their pupils out of their sphere, is wholly groundless so far as it relates to the lamentably large percentage of the children who are withdrawn from instruction in its lower stages. What this large proportion of our children who thus prematurely terminate their schooling need is, not less general education, but more, to fit them to become good citizens.

And, further, it is to be remarked that those pupils who, at a more mature age, complete the course of instruction provided in our most advanced elementary schools are the élite, coming largely from families in measurably easy circumstances. The parents of these children are justified in giving them an educational preparation for careers not requiring apprenticeship to manual trades.

It must be remembered also that the present outcry against the over intellectual education of the children of the masses of the working population is no new thing. It is as old as the existence of common schools for the children of the people. It has been heard in every country whenever a movement has been made for enlarging the scope of popular education. It is essentially the protest of the aristocratic class against the inevitable advance of democracy and social equality. In practically opposing liberal provisions for the education of the people, the aristocratic class always allies itself with and leads the most ignorant and illiterate portion of the community. Or, as it has been aptly said, it is the froth and dregs of society that unite, at all times and in all countries, in opposing the provision of good schools for the people. History makes it clear that it is to the great intelligent middle class that we must look for the defence and support of a liberal system of popular education.

Nevertheless it is not to be denied that there are intelligent and earnest friends of popular education who desire that the common schools should be made more practical; that is, better adapted to prepare their pupils for gaining their livelihood. For the accomplishment of this purpose the plan has been proposed and advocated, in some quarters, of introducing into the common schools instruction and exercises in manual arts and trades, or, as it has been called, the placing of the workshop in the school, thereby making the school serve the purpose of an apprenticeship.

This plan is advocated on these four grounds:

(1) That a complete education for practical life requires that the training of the hand should be carried on simultaneously with the acquisition of knowledge and mental culture.

(2) That the appropriation of a considerable portion of the pupil's time to hand labor will not retard his intellectual progress.

(3) That it will develop the taste for manual labor and prepare the pupils for earning their living on leaving school.

(4) That it would be a benefit to the community by supplying the industries with a better class of workers.

It will be seen that the question involved in this plan is twofold—pedagogical and industrial. On its industrial side it is essentially the problem of apprenticeship, one of the chief aims of the plan being to teach the pupils a trade, since, as it is alleged, in consequence of the breaking down of the ancient system of apprenticeship, boys have no longer the chance to acquire a practical knowledge of skilled handicraft in workshops under patrons and masters. On the pedagogical side, the question in substance is, whether the placing of the workshop in the school will defeat the just purposes of the general elementary education.

We find the germ of the idea of introducing manual labor into the school in the Émile of Rousseau, who included in his plan of education for his model pupil apprenticeship to a trade. But Rousseau did not touch upon the practical question of organizing instruction in handicrafts in public schools with which we are dealing. His pupil belonged to the independent class, and went to no school; his instruction was wholly individual, his intellectual studies being pursued with a private master, while his training in manual labor was received in the workshop of a joiner.

Still the question was soon raised by his countrymen, whether it is necessary in schools to teach trades to the children of the people. And in a remarkable work on the education of the people, published nearly a century ago, the following points, in substance, were made in opposition to the project:

(1) If the same trade were taught to all, it would do injustice to the

natural aptitude and taste of the pupils; it would do injustice to the parents, who ought to have a voice in determining the career of their children; and it would contravene the true end of the common school, namely, to render the pupils fit for all the trades and occupations which belong to this class of citizens.

(2) If, on the other hand, it is proposed to teach different trades so as to afford a choice, how can this be done without infinitely multiplying the cost of the school, from the necessity of multiplying the number of masters? And, besides, for what trade is the boy under twelve or fourteen years physically suited?

(3) The essential thing is, not that the boy on going out of school should know a trade, but that he should be fit, mentally and physically, to begin apprenticeship to any one he may choose. If he is well educated he can easily learn the trade he likes.

These reasons, as conclusive now as then, have not availed to silence discussion of the subject or to prevent the plan from being put to a practical test.

It is especially in France that this matter has been and is now agitated. To meet the difficulty which the teaching of trades in school presents in consequence of the variety of industries, each requiring a master, its advocates classed the manual operations of the principal trades in three or four categories, and thus arrived at what they called the synthesis of the work of the shop, represented by the bench, the lathe, the vise, and the anvil. They found that in the practice of the trades the general processes used in fashioning the materials are nearly the same. It was held that by learning these processes and acquiring skill in the use of tools the pupils would acquire a valuable knowledge of the trades of the workers in wood, ivory, iron, and steel. For the purpose of this instruction, comparatively few shops and masters would be required.

In accordance with this theory, schools were established many years ago, under the auspices of the minister of public instruction, in different parts of the country, to serve as models for the regions in which they were located. These schools have disappeared, some without leaving any trace and others by a change in purpose and organization.

More recently the experiment has been renewed in Paris, under different and very favorable auspices, some account of which has already been published in this country. The experiment to which I refer was begun seven years ago, in connection with an elementary city school for boys in Tournefort street. For this purpose the school was provided with four additional rooms, one for modelling and carving, one for instruction in what is called technology, one for wood work, furnished with benches and a lathe, and one for iron work, furnished with vises and a forge. The technology room is in reality a class room, combined with a museum of raw materials, typical specimens of work representing the general processes of the trades already alluded to, and a variety of tools. Here oral lessons on these matters are given to the technical classes on the object teaching plan. Boys are not admitted to the technical department under eleven years of age. The course is three years. In the first year all the members of the class pursue the same course of manual exercises. Afterwards some optional specialization is allowed.

The general education, with modifications in the direction of technical instruction, is continued concurrently with the exercises in the workshops. Each year the pupils, like those of the other city public schools, participate in the examination for the certificate of graduation in the regular school course with satisfactory success.

The favorable results of this experiment led to an attempt to secure the passage of a law providing for the general establishment of similar schools. It failed, however, to get much support, because the wisest and most influential educational authorities (among whom was M. Gréard, the eminent director of the city school system) were of the opinion that the satisfactory results of this experimental school were due to an exceptional concurrence of favorable circumstances, and that, under ordinary conditions, the inevitable outcome must be a poor workshop and a poor school.

Without doubt the best pedagogical authority is everywhere overwhelmingly opposed to the idea of annexing the workshop to the common school and in favor of insisting on a sound and thorough general education as the most useful and the most truly practical preparation for life. If it is attempted to carry on two kinds of education simultaneously and side by side, one of them will be sure to suffer.

The age for terminating general elementary education may be fixed too high. I am inclined to think that the age of fifteen is too high. But having determined the period for elementary schooling, it should be strictly consecrated to those studies which are calculated to form capable and sensible men and women, no part of it being surrendered to a manual apprenticeship. This reasonable minimum of school education should be guaranteed to the children of the laboring classes no less than to the children of the well-to-do and of the rich.

But what of the half time system? Is it not claimed that pupils will learn as much by dividing the school time half and half between manual labor and study as they will by giving the whole of their time to study? This theory has some advocates. It originated in England. It has not, however, met with favor to any considerable extent among sound and experienced educators. It is an absurdity. A half cannot be equal to a whole in instruction any more than in the science of quantity. No doubt half the time in a good school might be of more worth than the whole time in a poor school. Moreover, if school hours are made too long by half, then a half would be better than the whole for study? But the half time system, which daily takes from the pupil half the normal hours of study and tuition, is at best a mere makeshift. It is doubtless a great deal better than no schooling, but to regard it as an adequate substitute for the whole time system is a delusion.

But taking as our definition of education the preparation for life, is it not possible to render our common schools of the best type more effective for this end? I think it is, and in this way:

(1) By reducing the time devoted to what are called the old studies: reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, and grammar; by lopping off all superfluities in the treatment of these subjects, by the use of good methods, reënforced by a good organization, the pupils may be well up in them at the age of twelve years.

(2) By introducing more of the new studies which lie at the base of all technical education, namely, drawing, geometry, physics, chemistry, natural history, and applied mathematics. These subjects are, of course, to be treated in an elementary and practical manner. Politics, morals, and gymnastics are also to be included in the curriculum.

But perhaps the greatest thing that can be done in the common school to promote technical education is properly to ground all pupils of both sexes in drawing, both geometrical and freehand. There is no other branch of instruction that belongs so entirely both to general and technical education. It affords the training of the eye and hand universally requisite, and especially necessary to the skilled workman. And yet, so great is the prevailing ignorance on the subject even among the more intelligent classes of the community, that drawing in the public schools is very generally regarded as a superfluity, and is stigmatized as a mere accomplishment, an ornamental branch, a fancy study—an absurd contrivance for converting all children into bad artists. The most practical study of all is denounced as a hindrance and a stumbling block to practical education. This popular prejudice against drawing shows how far we are from being prepared to take the first effective step towards providing a well organized system of national technical education. That first necessary step is to make the teaching of drawing obligatory in all common schools, and to provide for its efficiency by the establishment of a sufficient number of normal art schools for the training of competent teachers and directors of drawing not only in its elementary but also in its higher grades.

In visiting the experimental school in Tournefort street, Paris, to which I have referred, I was much struck by two of its appendages, which it seemed to me might be profitably connected with common schools where the means would permit the expense which the providing of them would involve, namely, the room for modelling and carving and the room for technology. The technological instruction given in the latter might fairly be accepted as coming within the scope of general education, while at the same time it is a most useful element of industrial education. This instruction is the application of the intuitive method to the most practical use imaginable. I see no reason why every school might not, could not, or should not have its little technological museum. And modelling and carving in wood, soft stone, ivory, &c., afford admirable training for the hand and eye, as well as a means of protection from dust and injury and gives the whole apparatus compactness and symmetry."

And, finally, that "the clearness, fulness, and beauty of the mapping, as well as the many features of physical geography and climatology which it exhibits, are points well worth special notice."

Into each and all of these particulars the manufacturers invite the freest examination, for which purpose they have, in addition to this piece, provided among several others one not put together, which is open to the inspection of the association and of all others interested. And now the idea of the time globe may perhaps be more clearly stated by saying that, whereas the oldest clock of which we have any description preserved was constructed to represent the phenomenal aspects of the solar system, the sun, moon, and planets revolving around the earth, and thus indicating each hour of the day and night, the time globe is a miniature representation of the facts of the form and motion ot the world as they have since been found actually to exist. It may be described as our own world, placed in its true siderial position and reduced to convenient size for observing the important results which follow upon its rotation.

For you will notice, first, that the time globe moves.

What Galileo blessed the world by so confidently realizing and affirming as a conclusion of reason, Mr. Juvet, the inventor, has here at last realized mechanically and submitted to the evidence of sight.

The time globe is a globe endowed with life, having an automatic diurnal revolution exactly corresponding to that of our earth.

I should not be competent, perhaps, to explain to your satisfaction how Mr. Juvet has accomplished this difficult result, but, as a practical teacher, I respectfully solicit your careful attention to the following important facts, rendering, it seems to me, the time globe the most desirable apparatus known for object teaching in geography:

(1) It obviously gives the completest illustration of the diurnal motion of the earth. What so desirable illustration of this can the pupil have as the sight of the earth itself, as it were, in continual rotation from hour to hour and from day to day?

And for this purpose it should be set up in the school room in some conspicuous place, exposed to the sun when practicable, that a repetition of the various results of the earth's daily and annual revolutions may be continually reproduced. It will thus be one of the most powerful aids to the teacher in explaining and to the pupil in comprehending the causes constantly at work to bring about the various changes connected with the progress of each day, month, and year.

(2) It appears to form the best known indicator of the cardinal directions.

North and south, instead of lying, as is generally supposed, in the plane of the visible horizon, are here shown, in whatever latitude the time globe may be set up, to be in a line parallel to the earth's axis.

Then, in regard to up and down, east and west, about which there is even greater general misapprehension, the time globe gives a continuous demonstration that these are not absolute but relative directions; up and down being always directly from and towards the centre of the earth, while east is always the direction of the earth's motion, changing at every point, west being its opposite. By contrasting the true east and west directions with the movement of the dial hands, the difference may at any time be readily seen between true and apparent east and west.

(3) We next call special attention to the fact that the time globe wonderfully simplifies, while at the same time it universalizes, the notation of time. The association will observe that the necessity for the extensive construction of clocks with complex machinery and a large number of dials to exhibit the time at different places on the earth is at once obviated by this significant achievement.

The most common of the natural indicators of time is the earth itself in daily rotation on its axis. What simpler mechanical representation of this fact can there be than a globe revolving at the same rate, with a scale appended by which to determine at a glance the extent to which, at any time, the daily revolution of the earth has proceeded at any and every point on its surface?

In accomplishing this the time globe becomes a universal timekeeper. Starting at 12 o'clock midnight, the 24 hours, each with its 60 minutes, are accurately marked off on the equatorial or universal dial. Then, as in the great clock of nature, the earth combines in every meridian an hour and minute hand; by tracing the meridian of any place to the equatorial dial, its true time will always be found accurately recorded. The local time, as indicated on the clock dial, may be verified for the meridian of the place on the universal dial, as also, in like manner, the corresponding time of every other place on the earth.

We submit that the pupil is entitled to the great benefit of this wonderful achievement as an important stepping-stone to the comprehension of the ordinary arbitrary and complex method of noting time. The ambiguous divisions of the ordinary time dial into twelve parts, each of these into five other, the movement of the minute hand twelve times as fast as the hour hand, and to the right rather than to the left, bear no resemblance whatever to nature, but, being purely arbitrary, have in most cases to be learned and used long before they are understood.

(4) As another interesting and instructive result of the time globe's realized automatic motion, the pupil is readily enabled to locate any place on the earth with reference to the daily phenomena of morning, evening, noon, midnight, sunrise, sunset, forenoon, and afternoon.

For it is evident that, as the earth turns on its axis to the east, these phenomena will have a corresponding reproduction upon the globe. The shading of the night half of the universal dial so facilitates this as to leave little for the imagination to do. The fact also of events taking place on the eastern continent and announced to us on the western, as is frequently done, before their apparent real date, is readily comprehended by the help of this microcosmic exhibition of the daily phenomena.

(5) Another useful result for educational purposes, following from the peculiar construction of the time globe, is the great simplification it offers of the problem of converting difference in time into difference in longitude, and vice versa.

The universal dial being also a great circle, its time divisions bear fixed relations to its circular divisions, every fourth one of its 1,440 minute divisions coinciding with each degree mark, and, of course, every hour division with every fifteenth degree mark. The difference in longitudinal distance, therefore, between any two places, may be read off indifferently either in time or in longitudinal notation.

(6) By reason of its continual movement the time globe illustrates with great simplicity another difficult matter for the pupil to comprehend, viz, the change of date.

Having called attention to the fact that the maritime powers of the world have agreed to regard the 180th degree of longitude from Greenwich as introducing each commercial day by its passage under the midnight meridian of the celestial sphere, it will only be necessary to fix the fact in the mind of the pupil that this 180th terrestrial meridian leads on each new day; that, consequently, at the moment of coincidence there is but one commercial day on the earth, while at every other moment of the 24 hours there are parts of two days on the earth—one day in progress, and measured by all that part of the earth's surface included between the midnight meridian and the 180th terrestrial meridian, in the direction of the earth's motion, and the other the previous day, diminishing, and covering all the rest of the earth.

In this connection we beg leave to call attention to the ease with which the illustration may be conveyed of the cause of the long twilights in the vicinity of the poles, and of the comparatively sudden transitions between light and darkness on or near the equator. The increasing rapidity of the earth's motion from the poles to the equator is represented to the eye by the enlarging angle between any two meridians.

And, finally, the value of this piece as an apparatus for illustrating by object teaching the passage of the earth around the sun in the plane of the ecliptic, may be seen from the fact that, when standing in position through the year, the equinoctial and solstitial phenomena are accurately reproduced on its surface, as also the phenomenon of the unequal duration of the days and nights from one equinox to the other. At the time of the summer solstice the sun, standing over the Tropic of Cancer, will be observed to reach with its rays beyond the north pole to the Arctic Circle. Thence it will gradually approach the plane of the equator, pass it at the autumnal equinox, and proceed on its course until, at the winter solstice, standing over the Tropic of Capricorn, it embraces the south pole in its light, reaching beyond with its rays to the Antarctic Circle, from whence these phenomena will be repeated in reversed order.

The great need of any additional simplification of the principles of geography by object illustration has been sorely felt by every conscientious teacher of this science. While in its descriptive parts geography is readily mastered, there is, perhaps, no science taught in our common schools which in its principles, especially those bearing upon its astronomical relations, is less understood; the usual computations in a common almanac of the results following upon the earth's motion, such as the ever changing hours of sunrise, sunset, the equinoxes and solstices, being to the great mass as cabalistic as the signs of the zodiac.

The importance of the time globe achievement—"following upon a multitude of failures"—as wonderfully simplifying the principles of practical geography, may not only be gathered from the eminent names of those who have so warmly indorsed it, but will be obvious to every teacher upon examination of the instrument.

(For a representation of the time globe, see last page of this circular.)

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN ITS RELATIONS TO ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Dr. J. D. **Philbrick**, of Massachusetts, then read the following paper:

Education of every kind and degree is comprised in two great classes:

(1) General education, which includes in its scope at once the body, the intellect, and the heart. It strengthens, develops, and elevates the individual, and prepares for society vigorous, enlightened, and honest men; in the terse phrase of John Stuart Mill, "it makes capable and cultivated men."

(2) Technical education, which is designed to qualify persons for the exercise of a profession or trade. Its aim is to fit men for some special mode of gaining their livelihood. In its highest grades it is concerned with those professions which are called liberal; it forms in its lower stage the artisan or craftsman.

Both these kinds of education are indispensable, and where there is a lack of either there is imperfection and perhaps danger. The educational system of a country should, therefore, correspond to this division, and it will be complete or incomplete in proportion as it accomplishes the objects, for each individual, of both general and technical education.

Nothing is more striking in the educational movements in the most advanced nations than what has been done in recent years, and is now doing, by governments, municipalities, industrial organizations, and private enterprise, to provide the means of technical education of every grade and description. This is done with the twofold view, first, to promote the well being of the individual, to render every man, however humble his condition, not only self-supporting, but comfortable and prosperous; second, to promote the general interests of productive industry, and to meet the increasing demands for higher professional skill which the progress of civilization creates.

In our own country technical education is as yet but very imperfectly developed, especially in its industrial department. To be convinced of this, one has only to compare the provisions for the instruction of youth and adults in the arts and trades in our oldest and largest cities with those of Paris, Berlin, Vienna, and London.

For a few years past the problem in technical education which has especially occupied public attention in this country has been the relation of the public school with skilled labor and manual employments. The complaint is made that the schools of the present day tend to unfit the pupils for gaining their livelihood by manual labor, for which the large majority are inevitably destined.

No intelligent person can deny that the growth, development, and progress of our public free school system during the last quarter of a century have been little less than marvellous. Witness the vast increase of schools, of teachers, and of expenditures for educational purposes; of normal schools, of teachers' institutes and other organizations for raising the qualifications of teachers; the improvements in supervision, in schoolhouses, in text books, in courses of study, and in all the appliances of instruction; in the methods of teaching and discipline; in classification, grading, and attendance; and, finally, the multiplication and enlargement of free schools for instruction in the higher branches. In all this there is, doubtless, from the point of view of general education, reasonable ground for gratification. M. Buisson, the eminent French educator, meant it not as flattery when, in beginning his remarkable report on our system, he quoted the saying, "A republican government needs the whole power of education," and added, "These words of Montesquieu have, perhaps, never found a more striking application than in the subject which we are now about to consider."

And yet the charge is made and reiterated in various quarters that our schools of the most advanced type, where the organization is most complete, where the attendance is most prolonged and the instruction most efficient, fail in practical results: that they educate the mass of the pupils out of their sphere, and send them out into the world with a distaste for manual labor and unfitted for the life for which they are destined. The substance of the complaint is, not that the pupils are sent out uninstructed, not that they are wanting in intelligence and mental culture, but that they are graduated without possessing the practical knowledge and manual skill requisite to earn a living, and without the disposition developed to acquire such knowledge and skill.

Those who take this view of the results of the typical common school of the present day do not agree as to the modification demanded. On the one hand, there are those who advocate the reduction of the curriculum to the merest rudiments of instruction. They would throw overboard all the costly machinery of the modern school system, and return to primitive simplicity, ignorance, and contentment. On the other hand, however, the more numerous and influential class of these complainers propose that the schools shall be made to take the place, to a certain extent, of the apprenticeship which in former times afforded an open avenue to the arts and trades, but which the modern revolution in industrial pursuits has partially broken down.

Hence has arisen the important question as to the proper adjustment of the relations of technical education to the public school, which is at present so prominently before the public mind, and which it is the purpose of this paper to consider in some of its bearings.

And, first, it is to be observed that if our system, at its best, has failed to meet in a satisfactory manner the wants of those for whom it is intended, it does not stand alone in this respect. Its scope and methods are substantially those of the best systems in the most advanced nations. The two chief points of difference are these: First, our pupils who complete the course leave school at a somewhat maturer age than do the pupils of the best foreign elementary schools, not taking into account supplementary day and evening courses which are obligatory in some countries; and, secondly, a large proportion of our pupils drop out before completing the course, which is not the case where education is practically compulsory.

Certainly the charge that our schools carry their pupils too far in general education and educate their pupils out of their sphere, is wholly groundless so far as it relates to the lamentably large percentage of the children who are withdrawn from instruction in its lower stages. What this large proportion of our children who thus prematurely terminate their schooling need is, not less general education, but more, to fit them to become good citizens.

And, further, it is to be remarked that those pupils who, at a more mature age, complete the course of instruction provided in our most advanced elementary schools are the élite, coming largely from families in measurably easy circumstances. The parents of these children are justified in giving them an educational preparation for careers not requiring apprenticeship to manual trades.

It must be remembered also that the present outcry against the over intellectual education of the children of the masses of the working population is no new thing. It is as old as the existence of common schools for the children of the people. It has been heard in every country whenever a movement has been made for enlarging the scope of popular education. It is essentially the protest of the aristocratic class against the inevitable advance of democracy and social equality. In practically opposing liberal provisions for the education of the people, the aristocratic class always allies itself with and leads the most ignorant and illiterate portion of the community. Or, as it has been aptly said, it is the froth and dregs of society that unite, at all times and in all countries, in opposing the provision of good schools for the people. History makes it clear that it is to the great intelligent middle class that we must look for the defence and support of a liberal system of popular education.

Nevertheless it is not to be denied that there are intelligent and earnest friends of popular education who desire that the common schools should be made more practical; that is, better adapted to prepare their pupils for gaining their livelihood. For the accomplishment of this purpose the plan has been proposed and advocated, in some quarters, of introducing into the common schools instruction and exercises in manual arts and trades, or, as it has been called, the placing of the workshop in the school, thereby making the school serve the purpose of an apprenticeship.

This plan is advocated on these four grounds:

(1) That a complete education for practical life requires that the training of the hand should be carried on simultaneously with the acquisition of knowledge and mental culture.

(2) That the appropriation of a considerable portion of the pupil's time to hand labor will not retard his intellectual progress.

(3) That it will develop the taste for manual labor and prepare the pupils for earning their living on leaving school.

(4) That it would be a benefit to the community by supplying the industries with a better class of workers.

It will be seen that the question involved in this plan is twofold—pedagogical and industrial. On its industrial side it is essentially the problem of apprenticeship, one of the chief aims of the plan being to teach the pupils a trade, since, as it is alleged, in consequence of the breaking down of the ancient system of apprenticeship, boys have no longer the chance to acquire a practical knowledge of skilled handicraft in workshops under patrons and masters. On the pedagogical side, the question in substance is, whether the placing of the workshop in the school will defeat the just purposes of the general elementary education.

We find the germ of the idea of introducing manual labor into the school in the Émile of Rousseau, who included in his plan of education for his model pupil apprenticeship to a trade. But Rousseau did not touch upon the practical question of organizing instruction in handicrafts in public schools with which we are dealing. His pupil belonged to the independent class, and went to no school; his instruction was wholly individual, his intellectual studies being pursued with a private master, while his training in manual labor was received in the workshop of a joiner.

Still the question was soon raised by his countrymen, whether it is necessary in schools to teach trades to the children of the people. And in a remarkable work on the education of the people, published nearly a century ago, the following points, in substance, were made in opposition to the project:

(1) If the same trade were taught to all, it would do injustice to the

natural aptitude and taste of the pupils; it would do injustice to the parents, who ought to have a voice in determining the career of their children; and it would contravene the true end of the common school, namely, to render the pupils fit for all the trades and occupations which belong to this class of citizens.

(2) If, on the other hand, it is proposed to teach different trades so as to afford a choice, how can this be done without infinitely multiplying the cost of the school, from the necessity of multiplying the number of masters? And, besides, for what trade is the boy under twelve or fourteen years physically suited?

(3) The essential thing is, not that the boy on going out of school should know a trade, but that he should be fit, mentally and physically, to begin apprenticeship to any one he may choose. If he is well educated he can easily learn the trade he likes.

These reasons, as conclusive now as then, have not availed to silence discussion of the subject or to prevent the plan from being put to a practical test.

It is especially in France that this matter has been and is now agitated. To meet the difficulty which the teaching of trades in school presents in consequence of the variety of industries, each requiring a master, its advocates classed the manual operations of the principal trades in three or four categories, and thus arrived at what they called the synthesis of the work of the shop, represented by the bench, the lathe, the vise, and the anvil. They found that in the practice of the trades the general processes used in fashioning the materials are nearly the same. It was held that by learning these processes and acquiring skill in the use of tools the pupils would acquire a valuable knowledge of the trades of the workers in wood, ivory, iron, and steel. For the purpose of this instruction, comparatively few shops and masters would be required.

In accordance with this theory, schools were established many years ago, under the auspices of the minister of public instruction, in different parts of the country, to serve as models for the regions in which they were located. These schools have disappeared, some without leaving any trace and others by a change in purpose and organization.

More recently the experiment has been renewed in Paris, under different and very favorable auspices, some account of which has already been published in this country. The experiment to which I refer was begun seven years ago, in connection with an elementary city school for boys in Tournefort street. For this purpose the school was provided with four additional rooms, one for modelling and carving, one for instruction in what is called technology, one for wood work, furnished with benches and a lathe, and one for iron work, furnished with vises and a forge. The technology room is in reality a class room, combined with a museum of raw materials, typical specimens of work representing the general processes of the trades already alluded to, and a variety of tools. Here oral lessons on these matters are given to the technical classes on the object teaching plan. Boys are not admitted to the technical department under eleven years of age. The course is three years. In the first year all the members of the class pursue the same course of manual exercises. Afterwards some optional specialization is allowed.

The general education, with modifications in the direction of technical instruction, is continued concurrently with the exercises in the workshops. Each year the pupils, like those of the other city public schools, participate in the examination for the certificate of graduation in the regular school course with satisfactory success.

The favorable results of this experiment led to an attempt to secure the passage of a law providing for the general establishment of similar schools. It failed, however, to get much support, because the wisest and most influential educational authorities (among whom was M. Gréard, the eminent director of the city school system) were of the opinion that the satisfactory results of this experimental school were due to an exceptional concurrence of favorable circumstances, and that, under ordinary conditions, the inevitable outcome must be a poor workshop and a poor school.

Without doubt the best pedagogical authority is everywhere overwhelmingly opposed to the idea of annexing the workshop to the common school and in favor of insisting on a sound and thorough general education as the most useful and the most truly practical preparation for life. If it is attempted to carry on two kinds of education simultaneously and side by side, one of them will be sure to suffer.

The age for terminating general elementary education may be fixed too high. I am inclined to think that the age of fifteen is too high. But having determined the period for elementary schooling, it should be strictly consecrated to those studies which are calculated to form capable and sensible men and women, no part of it being surrendered to a manual apprenticeship. This reasonable minimum of school education should be guaranteed to the children of the laboring classes no less than to the children of the well-to-do and of the rich.

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But taking as our definition of education the preparation for life, is it not possible to render our common schools of the best type more effective for this end? I think it is, and in this way:

(1) By reducing the time devoted to what are called the old studies: reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, and grammar; by lopping off all superfluities in the treatment of these subjects, by the use of good methods, reënforced by a good organization, the pupils may be well up in them at the age of twelve years.

(2) By introducing more of the new studies which lie at the base of all technical education, namely, drawing, geometry, physics, chemistry, natural history, and applied mathematics. These subjects are, of course, to be treated in an elementary and practical manner. Politics, morals, and gymnastics are also to be included in the curriculum.

But perhaps the greatest thing that can be done in the common school to promote technical education is properly to ground all pupils of both sexes in drawing, both geometrical and freehand. There is no other branch of instruction that belongs so entirely both to general and technical education. It affords the training of the eye and hand universally requisite, and especially necessary to the skilled workman. And yet, so great is the prevailing ignorance on the subject even among the more intelligent classes of the community, that drawing in the public schools is very generally regarded as a superfluity, and is stigmatized as a mere accomplishment, an ornamental branch, a fancy study—an absurd contrivance for converting all children into bad artists. The most practical study of all is denounced as a hindrance and a stumbling block to practical education. This popular prejudice against drawing shows how far we are from being prepared to take the first effective step towards providing a well organized system of national technical education. That first necessary step is to make the teaching of drawing obligatory in all common schools, and to provide for its efficiency by the establishment of a sufficient number of normal art schools for the training of competent teachers and directors of drawing not only in its elementary but also in its higher grades.

In visiting the experimental school in Tournefort street, Paris, to which I have referred, I was much struck by two of its appendages, which it seemed to me might be profitably connected with common schools where the means would permit the expense which the providing of them would involve, namely, the room for modelling and carving and the room for technology. The technological instruction given in the latter might fairly be accepted as coming within the scope of general education, while at the same time it is a most useful element of industrial education. This instruction is the application of the intuitive method to the most practical use imaginable. I see no reason why every school might not, could not, or should not have its little technological museum. And modelling and carving in wood, soft stone, ivory, &c., afford admirable training for the hand and eye, as well as a means of cultivating the taste. To the work in this shop the strength of pupils of school age is quite adequate.

The instruction which I have called technological belongs rather to boys' trades than to girls'. In every school where there are girls there should be a department for the technology more appropriate for girls. Here should be provided instruction in sewing, cutting out and making, and in ornamental work to a greater or less degree. Man must learn to make himself useful in innumerable occupations and trades. The normal trade of woman is household administration. Hence the general and technical education appropriate for woman more nearly covers the same ground than in the case of man. And hence, there ought to be a considerable difference between the elementary education of boys and girls.

The public school conducted in accordance with these views would, in my judgment, furnish a better preparation for life in the civilization of the present day than would be afforded on the one hand by an education more exclusively literary or on the other by a combination of intellectual instruction with the learning of manual trades.

Special schools for special functions is the law of educational progress. It is the industrial school, therefore, and not the common school, that must furnish the requisite special training for the exercise of the industrial arts and trades, so far as such training is furnished otherwise than by apprenticeship.

In all ancient times apprenticeship was the one mode of initiation into the mysteries of all professions, arts, and trades. It is a characteristic of modern civilization that the special school comes in more and more to supplement or replace apprenticeship.

What is practicable in this direction for boys on leaving the common school is, perhaps, best illustrated by the Municipal School of Apprentices in the boulevard de la Villette, in Paris, which was opened in December of 1872.

The aim of this school is the same as that of the Tournefort street school, namely, to initiate boys into certain industries of iron and wood. But here the technical education succeeds the general education, instead of accompanying it. This establishment is not a school with a workshop placed in it or appended to it, as is the case with the experimental establishment in Tournefort street; but it is a workshop, or a system of workshops, with a school appended.

The principles upon which this institution is organized are, in abridged form, these:

(1) No premature admissions.
(2) No massing of large numbers of pupils.
(3) No hasty specialization of exercises.
(4) No payment for tuition to be required.
(5) No instruction properly called scientific.
(6) No applications outside of the ordinary constructions.

These principles are thus embodied in the regulations:

The maximum number of pupils is 150.

Candidates must be at least thirteen years of age, and furnished with a certificate of graduation from the common school, or must pass an equivalent examination.

The duration of the course is three years.

The pupils are divided into three sections, corresponding with the three grades of advancement.

The instruction is general and technical.

The general instruction comprises the obligatory studies of the elementary school and some of the optional branches, such as the elements of physics, of mechanics, and chemistry in their relations to the industries. With it is joined the technological instruction referred to in the account of the school in Tournefort street.

The technical instruction is, first, that of preparation, and, secondly, that of execution. In the preparatory course of the first year each pupil in rotation passes through the shops of wood and iron, performing a succession of certain elementary exercises. In this preparatory course each pupil in the class has charge of the engine for a certain number of days. The work of execution begins with the second year, when the choice of a specialty is permitted.

Besides the shops for work in wood and iron, there is a department of precision into which pupils of exceptional talent are admitted.

The pupils remain within the walls of the establishment from 7 in the morning until 7 in the evening, one hour, from 11 to 12, and half an hour, from 2½ to 3, being allowed for dinner, lunch, and recreation.

This school was not established in a haphazard manner, but on a plan thoroughly matured by Mr. Director Gréard, after a profound and exhaustive study of the subject, the results of which he embodied in a remarkable memoir, which was published in 1872 and was embraced in the French exhibition of education at the Vienna Exposition. It began with a complete organization and all the needed equipments. It has been in all respects successful. It meets a real want and accomplishes its purpose. It is without doubt the model school of its class of the whole world. The schools of apprentices of Havre and Amsterdam perhaps rank next to this.

This type of technical schools is wholly wanting in this country. The excellent Free Institute at Worcester, Mass., in its shop department, has, perhaps, the nearest resemblance to it; but in its theoretical department it is of a much higher order; it is designed to form engineers and industrial superintendents, while the Paris school has for its special function to form skilled workmen.

The school of mechanic arts connected with the Massachusetts Institute of Technology is an experiment in the same direction; but here the pupils stop with exercises in "*in*struction" and do not proceed to those of "*con*struction."

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Next to the placing of drawing on the propér basis as a branch of instruction in all our public schools, what I most desire tò see at the present moment, in connection with the organization and development of elementary technical education, is the establishment in our principal cities of duplicates of the Paris School of Apprentices.

RÉSUMÉ.

(1) Education is a preparation for life.

(2) Education is of two kinds: general education, which forms capable and honest men and women, and technical education, which fits men and women for some profession or trade by means of which they can gain their livelihood.

(3) The common school is for the first stage of general education and particularly for the mass of children who are not destined to a higher stage of general culture.

(4) The common school receives its pupils at six years of age, retains them eight years, and dismisses them at fourteen years of age.

(5) Useful technical education in a course side by side with the general education of the common school has been proved to be possible but not generally practicable, and such a combination as a system is not approved.

(6) The common school should be strictly held to exclusively general education, and this will be best when it forms the best basis for the technical education of the apprentice which should follow it.

(7) The common school should not attempt to teach what is called the old curriculum of studies scientifically or exhaustively, but for practical ends; and thus time will be gained for teaching in the same practical manner drawing, the elements of geometry, physics, chemistry, natural history, and applied mathematics.

(8) Girls should be taught in the common school the elements of household economy, and especially sewing, cutting out, and fitting, and boys, where the circumstances permit, modelling, carving, and technology.

(9) It would be well for country schools to have a garden attached, and for all boys' schools to have a room for special uses containing a bench, a vise, a lathe, and a few of the most common tools.

(10) Schools of apprentices should be established in great variety for boys and girls who have completed the common school education.

(11) The school of the apprentice is not a substitute for apprenticeship, but it affords the best initiation into handicrafts. Its primary aim is to form the skilled workman; it supplements manual exercises with general and special instruction.

(12) Model schools of apprentices should be established at the public expense; but, in the main, they must be established and maintained by industrial establishments and organizations.

(13) The Municipal School of Apprentices of Paris is recommended

as the best model of a school of apprentices supported at the public expense.

(14) The school of apprentices connected with the great printing house of Messrs. Chaix & Co., in Paris, is recommended as a model school of the type supported by a private establishment.

Mr. J. O. WILSON, president of the National Education Association, announced that its next meeting would be held in Chautauqua, N. Y., on the 13th of July next, and would continue its sessions for four days.

Prof. I. N. CARLETON, president of the American Institute of Instruction, announced that the next meeting of that body would be held in Saratoga, N. Y., commencing on the 6th of July next.

Mrs. LOUISE POLLOCK, principal of the Kindergarten Normal Institute of Washington, D. C., made a few remarks on the benefits the primary school teacher would derive from a thorough Kindergarten training. She extended an invitation to every State of the Union to send one lady well qualified by disposition and education to receive the Kindergarten normal training free of charge in the Kindergarten Normal Institute of Washington.

The first year of eight months she is to go through the regular course of instruction, the same as is done by the other ladies who pay for their tuition; and the second year she is to gain practical experience of teaching under the supervision of Mrs. Pollock and daughter.

The three points made were:

(1) Teachers in our public schools who have gained a good insight into the merits of the Kindergarten system will know better how to make all knowledge more practical and interesting, and they will avoid the danger of getting into ruts or of looking upon teaching as a drudgery or simply as a means for earning money. They will find that its principles of learning through doing (the intellectual part of the Kindergarten philosophy) can be carried up to the higher grades, without loss of time from elementary instruction, as can be proven both in the National Kindergarten and in the Kindergarten and school of Miss Susie Pollock, where children from six to eight years of age have gained as much book knowledge in two hours a day, with one hour devoted to Kindergarten exercises and occupations, as other children, with three or more hours devoted to elementary studies exclusively.

(2) Many children have to leave school early to assist their parents in earning money as cash boys, &c. It would be a great gain to them to enjoy two years' (when from four to six years of age) attendance in a Kindergarten. Mr. McRae, of Indiana, expresses the opinion that he values one year for his child in a good Kindergarten more than two years in an industrial school afterwards.

(3) As the attendance in our primary schools is a great deal larger than in any other grade, they should receive the most attention. Our normal

schools should make it a point to give the primary school teacher the best possible preparation, including the Kindergarten normal training.

Teachers thus prepared should be encouraged to remain in the lower grades, by paying them as good a salary as the teachers of the third or fourth grade receive.

President NEWELL asked that time might be given Dr. Philbrick to explain what he meant by and included in the term "technological museum;" whereupon Dr. PHILBRICK made the following statement:

TECHNOLOGICAL MUSEUMS.

In speaking as I did in my paper of the great utility of technological museums, I used the term in its more comprehensive signification, as comprising not only such museums as are usually found in Europe in connection with the superior institutions for instruction in applied science, namely, schools of mines, of forestry, of agronomics, of mechanics, of engineering, and of building and architecture, but as embracing, also, special museums connected with manufacturing establishments, of which the museum at the national manufactory of Sèvres is one of the most remarkable examples; and, finally, I meant to include under the term industrial museums, whether national or local, those which are of the nature of permanent exhibitions of natural products, apparatus, tools, and machines, and specimens of manufactured products, both useful and ornamental. The museum of the Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers, in Paris, is perhaps the most complete and comprehensive type of the technological museum, while the little collection in the Tournefort school, which struck me as a desirable thing for boys' schools generally, may be regarded as the most rudimental specimen. One is at the top, and the other is at the bottom of the scale; but they both belong to the same category and are equally useful in their respective limits.

The world's exposition is in reality but a universal temporary museum of technology, and the enormous multiplication and growth of museums illustrating the practical arts and the decorative arts, or arts of industrial design, as well, during the last quarter of a century, are due in no small degree to the stimulus and the materials afforded by the several universal expositions which have been held.

These museums are schools for the application of the intuitive method of instruction to the people generally, in educating them in matters of practical utility connected with their interests in a thousand ways.

In our own country such museums as are here referred to are as yet to be created; but it is easy to see that our Centennial Exhibition has imparted a decided impulse in the direction of their creation, and I trust the time is not distant when they will be spread all over the country.

One of the best sayings of Agassiz was that he hoped the time would come when every primary school would have its little museum of natural history. May we not hope that every common school may, in due time, be furnished with a little technological museum? In one of the fine common schools of Vienna I saw installed in a good sized room a beautiful combination of a museum of technology and of natural history, with a pedagogical library for the teachers and a juvenile library for the pupils, and a set of physical apparatus. For the purposes of popular education all sorts of museums are needed. Every village should have its public museum as well as its public library. The museum is only second to the library as a means of popular education. The village or town museum would naturally comprise the elements of all sorts of museums. Specialization would, of course, be carried out in larger towns in proportion to the size and resources of the community. The national capital should have not one museum only, but a comprehensive series of museums, organized on a scale worthy of a great and wealthy nation.

A school museum of technology might be easily begun by a collection of metals in various forms and of woods in different stages of manufacture. A beginning once made and a place of instalment secured, the thing is sure to grow in size and interest and usefulness.

Dr. W. T. **Harris**, of St. Louis, then read the following paper, which was commented on by Messrs. Eaton, Ruffner, and Wickersham:

THE TENTH CENSUS FROM AN EDUCATIONAL POINT OF VIEW.

PART I.—GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

The importance of statistics in regard to man as a social being has been appreciated ever since civilization began. Man as a social being and man as an individual, particular person, are two very different objects. As individual, John or James, each has a self—an ego—but a self hemmed in by limitations qualitative and quantitative. As existing in the organic form of institutions, man becomes a series of giant selves, each one formed in the general image of man and having its head, its hands—its deliberative power, its will power to execute with. As such vast organism, man becomes infinite in respect to many points wherein the single individual is finite. For example, the single individual exists here and now in a single definite place and moment of time. He is limited in respect to size and weight, strength, hunger and thirst, ability to sustain heat and cold, youth or age, sex, health or disease, education, climate and season, conditions of weariness or vigor, and such matters. As individual he is a very uncertain element. But by combining into social organisms he so reënforces his finite self as a particular bodily and mental self that he wellnigh removes these limitations of time and space, and as a civilized being he becomes something general whose limitations are cancelled or annulled through participation, each man participating in the life of all men.

In the most rudimentary of those greater selves—the family—the inequalities of infancy, youth, maturity, and old age are mediated and balanced, so that the infant lives a rational life in full view of his destiny;

the feebleness of old age is provided for; the sick are cared for by the well; the inequalities of sex are compensated, and likewise those of industrial capacity.

In social economy as the department of productive industry, the finitude of the individual as lacking skill and adaptation to all trades and wants is annulled by the division of labor, and each one is allowed to develop the maximum of skill by limiting himself to the minimum of variety in the use of his brain and muscles.

In the state we find still greater results achieved. While the individual little man (the microcosm) is periodic in his variations, needing alternations of work, rest, recreation, and sleep, being unable to think or to work at certain times, the nation never sleeps, never ceases to wake, to think, to act, to provide, to produce. During the sleep of one individual the nation watches through the person of another individual; it pieces out the defective thinking and planning of each individual by means of the thinking and planning of a large organization of men; it strengthens the backbone of one man through the addition of many others. It adjusts itself everywhere by eliminating the defects of excess or deficiency in one individual by results of combination, wherein each individual's work is modified through that of others, and thus a general more rational result is attained.

It is not necessary to speak of the institution of the church, by which the consensus of the highest thinking and feeling of the human race in regard to spiritual matters is obtained, and by means of education made to be the conviction of all people in the community. In general, it is the province of institutions — the family, civil society, the state, the church — to make real the ideal self of man as an infinite, self-determining being, i. e., a free being, and to make available the results of this higher being, this synthesis of small beings in a greater, to each and all, so that each individual may participate in the life of the whole, and share not only in the food, clothing, and shelter produced by all human industry, but also share in the realized intelligence of all men on the globe in our time; more than this, to share in the wisdom of the race collected and preserved without loss or diminution from generation to generation.

It is clear from this point of view that the problem of life from a human point of view is this one of "How shall the individual come into this realm of participation so that he may share in the total production of his fellowmen, material and spiritual production?" The microcosm must become the macrocosm. The means for this and the application of those means make up education as a life occupation. There must be no arrested development anywhere. All life is education: the nurture of the child, the school epoch for the youth, the business vocation of early mature manhood, the citizenship of mature life, the church as the continuous spiritual culture of the individual up to insight into the eternal verities — all these are one process of education, and the school is only a small department of the whole of human education.

In view of this difference between the mere individual man as the possibility and the realization of man by means of institutions wherein individual combines with individual and many make one (as hinted in our national legend "E pluribus unum"), each one sinking his selfish, egotistic independence in order through his dependence on the social whole to participate in and realize a higher, broader independence—in view of this relation of the multiplicity of individuals to the realization of the rational life of each, we behold the interest of statistics. It is not each individual by himself, but each for all and all for each. The quantitative element in the human organization has great qualitative significance. Quantity in the army may mean freedom or subjugation and slavery; in the productive industry it may mean wealth and luxury or poverty and starvation.

While looking upon this general question of numerical relation as important for the existence of man as a civilized, rational being, we also see the several aspects which statistics have. In general it is the characteristic of man to be self knowing — a conscious animal. From his knowing, his intellect, he obtains the laws and principles with which to direct the volitions of his will; directive power comes with self-knowledge. And again the most important part of self-knowledge is this knowledge of man's greater self—the social self. Self-knowledge therefore includes as first and most essential the knowledge of institutions. The state must have knowledge of the quantitative phases of its reality; social science must know the general trend or aggregate result of its minor processes—judging of its labor system by the paupers it casts ashore, its local suffering and want, the balance of its exports and imports, the means of equalizing vocations, &c., and of its condition of family nurture by the number of unfortunates produced, the deaf and dumb, insane, idiotic, blind, the orphans, its statistics of crime, &c.

In the order of these species of self-knowledge we must not omit to note as important the distinction between what is essential to direct self-preservation and what is secondary, i. e., essential to preservation, but only mediately so.

It will be found that the political necessity—the necessity of the state—is always the first and most direct one. Without the state the social elements are all exposed under the cruel open sky, and doomed to destruction by the inclemency of the storms that rage there. The roof of the state must first be raised before the other social elements can exist or be perfected. Life and property are the first essentials; when these are provided for, then comes the third element: social condition. As the nation progresses into freedom it comes more and more to recognize the secondary elements as essential, and to recognize their reaction upon the political power of the state.

What a lesson has been taught in Europe in recent times of the importance of an educated people to a strong state. Prussia has made it impossible for statesmen to neglect public education if they expect to preserve independent nations on the continent of Europe.

Without occupying you further with these general points of view I will now take up the special theme assigned to me for consideration, and will therefore ask your attention to a suggestion in regard to a slight modification of our census tables with a view to enabling school officers throughout the United States to study the question of school population in a more satisfactory manner than they have been able to do hitherto.

PART II.—SUGGESTED CHANGES IN THE SCHEDULES OF THE UNITED STATES CENSUS.

The technical expression "school population" refers to the definitions given in the several State constitutions of the part of the entire population that shall share in the annual distribution of the proceeds of the State school fund. The period usually fixed upon for school age begins at 5 years of age or at 6 years (in 16 States at 5, and in 16 at 6 years), and ends at 20 or 21 years (in 20 States at 21, and in 7 States at 20 years).

The "school age" is important in determining the ratio of children who *ought* to be in school to those who are *actually* in school, and consequently it is essential to determine the importance of measures to be taken to extend the school system.

The census of the United States for 1870 did not give the data from which to ascertain the number of the population between the ages of 6 and 20 or 21.

While the returns from the special localities gave the ages of all people, the abstract which was printed by the Census Bureau gave only the following summaries: Under 1 year of age; 1 year and under 2 years; aggregate under 2 years; 2 years and under 3; aggregate under 3 years; 3 years and under 4; aggregate under 4; 4 years and under 5; aggregate under 5. All is satisfactory thus far, but now on we have only the aggregate population between the ages of 5 and 10, 10 and 15, 15 and 18, 18 and 20, 20 and under 21, with aggregates of population under 10, under 15, under 18, under 20, under 21, under 25, under 30 &c.; after 80 the population is given for each year.

By subtracting the number of people 4 years and under from the total under 21, it was possible to tell how many were between the ages of 5, and 21; but only an approximate estimate could be arrived at as to the number over 6 and under 21, or any other age, for the reason that the number under 6 is not given.

The addition of only three columns, showing respectively the number at the age of 5, 6, and 7, would give us the data from which to calculate exactly the school population in thirty-five of the States; and if the number aged 16 were given, we could calculate this item in all the States.

To make this addition, and at the same time to avoid increasing the size of the tables, the columns of aggregates could be omitted, aggregates being easily obtained for the total under 2, under 3, under 4, under 5, by adding the items given for the previous periods already. We need the data far more than the summaries, which are elaborated merely for convenience.

If we could have the tables so full as to give us the number at each age from 1 to 21, the service in the cause of education would be still greater and the service to general social science would be quite invaluable.

On the part of school education we could ascertain just what ratio of the entire population we enrolled in school at the several ages, at 7, at 10, at 14 years, for example, and it would give the definite data to determine in what periods of life the greatest withdrawal from school takes place and where it is necessary to put the chief stress of the system. Should we endeavor to increase the attendance upon school of pupils at the ages of 6 or 7, or at the ages of 14 or 15; should we adopt the device of the Kindergarten, or should we give more attention to the attractiveness of the grammar schools or high schools?

In general social science a great field of study would be open at once. If you cut down a tree in the forest and study carefully the rings of annual growth in the wood, you will see there the record of the climate and seasons of each year as it affected the growth of that tree, the degree of moisture and dryness, cold and heat, &c. This could not be done if you neglected to study the single rings of annual growth, but lumped the results into periods of five years. Each aggregate equalizes and cancels individual differences of seasons, just as the social aggregates equalize and cancel the idiosyncrasies of the individuals. A year is a cycle of growth in the vegetable kingdom and to a less degree also in the animal kingdom. Five years is no natural period of growth and decay, and its meaning as an epoch is very slight in human life.

In the first twenty years of human life, if we could have the statistics by years, we could study the effects of perturbations in the past. We could see what effect the war had made; what effect a local epidemic, a pestilence, a period of hard times, a fever for migration, &c.

Well marked epochs in human life are the following: Infancy, from birth to the age of 3 years, the child having become able to take solid food and learned how to walk; childhood, from the age of 3 to the period of its second set of teeth, 5 or 6 years; boyhood and girlhood, from 6 to 14, puberty; youth, 14 to 21, completion of bodily growth. (Of course these names, infancy, childhood, youth, &c., are used somewhat arbitrarily.)

I hesitate to urge the publication in our census report of so much tabulation as would be involved in giving for each locality the details of the ages of population for the first twenty years. And yet one would be willing to forego all the advantage of the convenience in having so many aggregates made for him. By the interested party the labor of making summaries for himself would be cheerfully undertaken if he could get at the items readily. There are twenty-three or more of these aggregates given in the census, and all but three might be dispensed with.

In conclusion, I would say that in this paper, while I have endeavored to show how the census can be made more useful to that large class of persons who have to study it—the school directors (perhaps a more numerous class than all others combined, of the classes who consult the census)—I am far from intending to cast reflection upon the Census Bureau. Indeed I cannot close this paper without expressing the admiration which we all feel at the great progress that the successive censuses have made over the preceding ones.

One needs only to look carefully into the three volumes of the census as prepared under the supervision of General Francis A. Walker to see evidence of the great reforms and improvements that have been introduced into the schedules and into the methods of collecting information. The census for 1860 omitted the very information of most importance to the political and military power of the nation. It gave neither the voting population (from 21 upwards) nor the military strength (males from 18 to 45).

Under the present enlightened management we have had so much information added that the census has become a vast storehouse of facts for the study of our social condition, and wise statesmanship may find what it most needs for a sound basis upon which to found its measures.

A bird's-eye view of the results of the last census shows us the following important items classified under the three heads of (1) national purposes, (2) social purposes, and (3) school or educational purposes:

(1) National purposes: items of race, nativity, military age, voting age.

(2) Social purposes: items of pauperism and crime, areas and public dwellings, sex and ages by nationalities, occupations (with age, sex, and nationality), deaths (with age, sex, and nationality), diseases (with locality, &c.), unfortunates (blind, deaf and dumb, insane, idiotic), with age, sex, and nationality, months of birth of the population, wealth and public indebtedness, crops, machines, productions.

(3) Schools and education, items of illiteracy, schools and teachers, pupils, libraries, newspapers and periodicals, churches, children of school age (5-15), children attending school.

The items here separated and classified under education belong, of course, to a department of social science.

The census tables give, first, the aggregate by States and Territories; secondly, by counties; and, thirdly, by civil divisions less than counties. Tables giving the aggregates by States and Territories could be spared, if it were necessary in order to save labor at the Census Bureau.

It is not necessary to assure this body of superintendents that the census is the most valuable source of information that we possess for the study of the results of education upon society, nor is it necessary to mention the fact that all laborers in the cause of education and social amelioration owe a great debt to the enlightened insight of the Superintendent of the Census Bureau.

The consideration of what has been suggested in this paper is respectfully submitted, in case of your approval, as a basis for a conference between the Bureau of Education and the Census Bureau.

Mr. J. M. WILSON, of the District of Columbia, put in a plea for the Industrial School of the District of Columbia. He said it was proposed to teach in this school shoemaking, gardening, sewing, cookery, and kindred work. They intended the school to be for practical work, and the rooms for each separate trade should be in themselves perfect museums to illustrate that particular trade through every step. For instance, in the room set apart for shoemaking, there you will find first the animal, then the hide undressed, then the leather, then how the leather is cut and sewed and pegged until the shoe is finished. These things are not only told the pupil, but he is instructed to do them himself. And the same idea is to be carried out in reference to other trades.

While Mr. Wilson was speaking, Dr. Barnas Sears, general agent of the Peabody education fund, entered the room, was invited to a seat on the platform, and at the close of Mr. Wilson's remarks was introduced to the audience, with a request to address them.

Dr. SEARS said that he had been unable to attend the meeting of the department earlier because the Peabody board of trustees had been in session and were considering very important matters. They had, among other things, prepared a paper for presentation to Congress favoring national aid to education, which he thought it would be hardly proper to disclose the substance of prior to its presentation to that body, and he would therefore pass from the subject with the single remark that the paper had been drawn up with much care by a member of the Peabody board of trustees and had been considered and approved by the whole board. In regard to the proper course to be pursued in administering the Peabody fund he said that at first there had been two opinions, one favoring the establishment and maintenance of separate schools, wholly under the control of their own board, and the other favoring the use of the fund under certain limitations and conditions in aid of existing schools and agencies, or such as might thereafter be established by city or State authorities, on the theory that it is wiser to help those who will help themselves. This latter opinion prevailed, and the proceeds of the fund began and have continued to be disbursed from year to year in substantial conformity to this idea, and chiefly on the advice and through the agency of city and State authorities. When he entered upon duty as general agent of the Peabody fund not one of the southern States had established a system of public schools, free to all, under State authority. He was not quite sure about Tennessee, but believed that no common school system had been authorized or organized there at that time.

General **EATON** said he thought the legislature of Tennessee had enacted the necessary laws, but that they may not have been put in force at the time, 1866–'67.

Dr. **SEARS**, resuming, said that now every southern State has its system of free schools established by law, and he asserted that the Peabody board had contributed its full share in bringing about this result. A system of free common schools having now been provided for in all these States, his board, in common with the active supporters of these systems, were turning their attention to the ways and means of elevating the character of instruction to be given. The great want is well educated and well trained teachers, and the agencies to supply this want are teachers' institutes and normal schools.

The institutes, as cheap and immediate agencies, are well suited to the present condition and needs of the southern people, and where they are continued through several weeks, under competent teachers, they can hardly fail of excellent results. The Peabody board is now aiding to some extent these institutes, but their chief reliance was and is upon normal schools; and to their support the board are now devoting a large proportion of the annual proceeds of the Peabody fund. There are not many normal schools of a high character in the Southern States except those aided by this fund. Virginia has now two summer normal schools, one at the university and one for colored teachers at Lynchburg, and appropriates $500 annually for the institute at Hampton. North Carolina supports a six weeks' normal school for white teachers and a yearly one for colored. South Carolina has none, but sends some pupils on Peabody scholarships to Hampton. Georgia has a normal department in the University of Atlanta, and sends 19 pupils to the Normal College at Nashville. [Superintendent Orr, interrupting, said Georgia sends 20 to Nashville.] Florida also sends pupils to the Normal College at Nashville. Alabama has one for white pupils and two for colored. Mississippi has none, Louisiana has two, Arkansas two, and Texas, though late in the field, has just provided by law for two. West Virginia nominally has six, but they are neglected, while in Tennessee is the widely known Normal College, supported chiefly by the Peabody fund. It is now the purpose of the board to use the greater portion of their fund in aid of schools and agencies for the education and training of teachers in the South.

By special request, Superintendent Wilson, of Washington, had in attendance a small class of little children from one of the public schools, taught by Miss Gertie Cowling, a late graduate of the city normal school, who went through various exercises, exhibiting the working and result of normal training as it exists in the District of Columbia.

THE HIGH SCHOOL QUESTION.

Mr. **Gove**, of Colorado, asked if there was any unfinished business before the meeting or any other matter that would prevent the discussion of Mr. Philbrick's paper on technical education ?

Mr. **Newell** replied that there was not, that the discussion of any paper that had been read was in order; whereupon the paper on high schools by Mr. Dickinson, of Massachusetts, being called up,

Mr. **Richards**, of Washington, said that he did not desire to be understood as underrating the high school, for as to many of the points made by Mr. Dickinson he fully agreed with that gentleman, but it could not be denied that the majority of the children of the public schools never reach the high school, and for the majority it is a burdensome taxation. He would call attention to the greater importance of the primary schools. The new departure in primary instruction was no humbug, but a right move in the right direction. He argued that the best teachers should be set to work in the primary schools, and when a better system of training is inaugurated in these lower grade schools there would be less complaint and dissatisfaction with the higher schools.

Dr. **Sears** said many things have been said on this subject of high schools, and well said, but nevertheless there were some things that he wanted to say himself. A good system of free public schools was a necessity to every State government, and although it is complained of the high school that all the children of the State do not get an education there, so about the grammar schools, all are not educated there; yet that is no argument against the grammar school. The high school is a stimulant to the school below it, as the college is to the high school, and as any higher grade school is to the grade below it. There is a political reason for favoring the high schools. They occupy intermediate ground between the common school and the college; through them a larger number of pupils obtain a higher education. These pupils belong mainly to the great middle class in society, that class which stands between the extremely poor and the extremely rich and holds in check these extremes, between which exist irreconcilable war. He was afraid of no cause that was controlled by the middle classes; he was afraid of every cause not under their control. This middle class is the great conservator of peace and order. The high school is their college. It is the keystone of the arch of public schools, and if the keystone be suffered to be knocked out the system will fall, leaving nothing but pauper schools in the ruins.

Mr. **Wickersham**, of Pennsylvania, argued with Dr. Sears that the high school was the school of the great middle class, and if we allowed it to be attacked we gave a death blow to the whole system. He believed that the friends of high schools had adopted wrong tactics in allowing themselves to be put on the defensive, when the aggressive policy would be much more effectual. If the enemies of the high school seek its destruction, let its friends rally and demand that two shall be supported in place of one, and it will generally turn out that these enemies will be glad to compromise the matter by an ample support of one rather than run the risk of being obliged to support two. They will be very glad to let well enough alone. At any rate, such had been his own experience in his own State, where an attempt was made to strike down a high school. Its enemies now declare that they have no objection to one high school, but are only opposed to two.

General ARMSTRONG, of Hampton, Va., did not sympathize with the old lie that a little learning is a dangerous thing. He did not like to hear any one speak disparagingly of the three R's, and he could not agree that the education derived simply from arithmetic, reading, and writing was overrated. He referred in a very complimentary manner to the work done by Mr. Charles Brace in New York City.

Mr. J. W. DICKINSON, of Massachusetts, said there is much opposition to high schools because it is argued and believed by many that the State has done its duty when it supports the elementary schools, but in Massachusetts they have been fully sustained. There are forty towns in that State that voluntarily support high schools which are not obliged to by law. There are now 216 high schools and some 20,000 pupils attending them.

Mr. RICHARDS (ironically). What is the school population of Massachusetts?

Mr. DICKINSON. Something over 300,000.

Mr. RICHARDS. And how many attend your high schools?

Mr. DICKINSON. About 20,000.

General EATON was very pronounced in favor of high schools, declaring that they should be made mandatory. He quite agreed with those who had preceded him that the high school was not only useful in itself, but useful in its effect upon schools below. It was something to aim at and strive for. Who shall undertake to measure and tell the vast power it thereby wields over the whole system of common schools? He believed the high school was a great and important institution, deserving the fullest support.

The PRESIDENT here announced that the time had arrived for adjournment to call upon the President of the United States.

The meeting then adjourned to meet at 7.30 P. M. in the audience room of the church.

At 2 o'clock P. M. the members of the department, headed by President Newell and General Eaton, paid their respects to the President of the United States at the Executive Mansion.

At the same hour the public school teachers of the District, to the number of between four and five hundred, assembled in the Congregational Church and were entertained by short addresses from a few members of the department.

Mr. DICKINSON, of Massachusetts, spoke of the philosophy of teaching, showing as he went along, by examples and illustrations, how even abstract ideas may generally be brought within the apprehension of a child, and how, without such apprehension, any mere word definition must prove substantially worthless. The idea or thing itself must first be brought clearly before the mind, and then its sign or name or definition may be given. And then, holding up a piece of chalk with which he had been writing on the blackboard, he, quite unconsciously, as it appeared, fell into the rôle of the pedagogue, and gave a very attractive object lesson with the chalk as the object.

At the conclusion of Mr. Dickinson's address, Superintendent WILSON said he had heard or read not long ago of a singular phenomenon in the pedagogic world, namely: that if you look westward over the Allegheny Mountains you will discover one head towering up long before any other comes to view. That head is now before you, and he took great pleasure in introducing to the teachers of Washington, Dr. Harris, of St. Louis. On coming forward, Dr. HARRIS said, he thought Mr. Wilson had trenched somewhat on ground preoccupied by the Irishman at the Donnybrook Fair, whose rule was to hit the first head he saw; but let that pass. As superintendent, it was part of his duty to visit the schools of St. Louis from time to time, but, owing to their great number, he could only make the most hurried inspection of each; and yet he had found that he could form a pretty correct judgment of the condition and character of a school from even such hurried visits—a judgment which was seldom overruled by his assistants, who had the time, and whose duty it was, to fully inspect and examine each school. If disorder, unrest, inattention, prevail, an experienced school officer will take in the situation at a glance. It is useless to apologize. What is found once will be found again. The test is attention—not stillness, not absence of motion, but rather "the rest of infinite motion, the sleep of a spinning top"—the absorption of pupils in their work, so that the entrance of a visitor, though noticed, passes unheeded. Such attention is not easily attainable. It cannot be put on for an occasion. Its absence cannot be explained away. It is a supreme test of success.

Mr. WILSON, resuming, said they had now heard from the educational philosopher of the East and the educational organizer of the West, and midway between the two lay the educational keystone of the great common school arch. He took pleasure in introducing to their acquaintance Dr. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania.

Mr. WICKERSHAM spoke of courses of study for the public schools and specially of the place to begin. He said there was one plain rule, namely, to begin where the knowledge of the pupil ends. It follows that the place of beginning may vary in different schools and with different pupils, and must be determined in each case by the teacher. But the rule is simple; move forward with your pupils until you reach the unknown, and begin there. Do this in all branches of elementary knowledge. It is a mistake to limit instruction to two or three branches. Does not every child turn its hand to fifty things in a day in spite of all repression you can put upon him? Nature gives this hint and you will do well to follow it. Include in your course of study the elements of all knowledge. Variety is the law of growth for childhood.

FOURTH SESSION—FRIDAY EVENING.

WASHINGTON, *February* 20, 1880.

The department reassembled and was called to order by the president at 7.30 P. M.

Mr. HAGAR, of the committee on resolutions, submitted the following; which were adopted:

Resolved, That the cordial thanks of the department are tendered to the board of education of the District for the ample accommodations; to Superintendent Wilson for the wisdom and efficiency with which he has made and carried out all needful arrangements for the work of the department; to General Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, for his courteous and constant efforts to make the gatherings pleasant and profitable; to Mrs. Pollock for her generous offer to educate in her Normal Kindergarten School, free of charge, one pupil from each State, who shall be recommended by the superintendent of public instruction in that State; and to the proprietor of the Ebbitt House for the liberal terms on which he has entertained the members of the association.

Resolved, That the welfare of the poor and neglected children throughout the country calls for the more serious attention of educators, statesmen, and philanthropists; and, therefore, that the system of dealing with such children, so successfully established by the State of Michigan, as set forth in the paper of C. D. Randall, is worthy of the most careful consideration; that this department respectfully but most earnestly urges upon the attention of Congress the importance and necessity of providing, with a liberal hand, for the educational wants of this District, so that all parts of the District may be furnished with suitable school buildings, with the best of school appliances, and with a sufficient number of competent teachers, to the end that all its schools may justly serve the country as models of what the best schools ought to be; that the whole department rejoices in the rapidly growing interest in popular education manifested in nearly all parts of the land; it would unceasingly endeavor to impress upon the minds of all lovers of their country the vast importance of securing as speedily as possible to every child the blessings of a generous education.

Mr. RUFFNER, of the committee on national legislation, reported the following resolution:

Resolved, That there is immediate and pressing need of Federal aid in the States, and especially to the Southern States, in the work of educating the people in the primary branches of knowledge; that the Congress now in session be, and hereby is, respectfully urged to consider and act favorably upon the bill now before it (H. R. 334) entitled "A bill to apply the proceeds of sales of public lands to the education of the people," &c., or some modification thereof which would recognize the principle of applying these funds wholly for the general education of the people; that the president of this body be requested to communicate these resolutions to the House of Representatives through the chairman of the Committee on Education and Labor, and to the Senate through the chairman of the corresponding committee.

Dr. RUFFNER then addressed the department in support of his resolution, as follows:

CONGRESS AND THE EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.

The call upon Congress for aid in educating the people will not cease until aid be granted. A notable reënforcement has just entered the field, namely, the trustees of the Peabody education fund, a body singularly dignified. As a body, it is well informed as to the condition of the country, and particularly of the southern country. Its well known general agent, Dr. Sears, knows better than any one else what are the facts and meaning of southern affairs. Hence this movement by the Peabody trustees is entitled to the highest consideration.

And when, in addition to this, we remember the indorsement which this cause has received from the body of school superintendents, from the National Association of Teachers, from State legislatures, and from numerous other influential bodies, we may feel assured that the object will be atttained. But any object, however noble, having in it no war, politics, money, or magnetism, must be slowfooted in the press of congressional business and among the commonplaces occupying the popular mind. There are also oppositions.

When we ask for the proceeds of the public lands, although the kernel has largely been eaten out of the nut, we run against old party theories. Most men who have held these theories understand that theories are and ought to be modified in their action by circumstances, yet a full-blooded abstractionist knows nothing but to die by his theory. But a public man, whatever be his theory, will pay due respect to the public will.

Besides political and sectional jealousies, other interests antagonize this patriotic object. Private and corporate schemes are ever moving, or preparing to move, on the public domain. How little do the people of the United States generally know how largely their vast landed estate has thus been alienated. A well informed writer in the International Review gives us this statement of facts, which might well rouse the indignation of the public mind, if they are anywhere near the truth:

"Instead of laying the foundations of democratic equality in the soil itself, and thus taking 'a bond of fate' for the welfare of coming generations, the goading need of money and the very abundance of American lands paved the way for great monopolies, which have increased and multiplied ever since. The purchase of vast tracts by individuals and companies was not only allowed but encouraged by the Government. The policy of disposing of the public domain at low or nominal rates to actual settlers only, and in limited quantities, was not then dreamed of; and so potent was the influence of those feudal ideas which had been transplanted from the Old World that the enactment of the present homestead law did not become possible till seventy-five years after the establishment of the American land system. But this famous law did not emancipate the public domain. It was a sign of promise, but it did not fulfil the nation's desire. Non-resident speculators were still at liberty to purchase great tracts and hold them indefinitely for a rise in price which was at war with the whole spirit and policy of the homestead law and as flagrantly unjust as it was financially stupid. The American system of land grants to railroad corporations, which originated in 1850, has already surrendered a territorial empire of over two hundred million acres! The Indian treaty system, fully inaugurated by Congress in 1861, has robbed poor settlers of great bodies of choice lands, and handed them over to monopolists and sharpers. The legislation on the subject of military land bounties, while nearly profitless to the soldier, has been a national disaster, beneficial only to speculators and monopolists. The acts of Congress on the subject of swamp lands and college and Indian scrip have been equally vicious and indefensible· The rights of settlers under the homestead and preëmption laws have been seriously threatened by Department rulings in the interest of railway companies, while the growing power of land monopoly has been formidably reënforced by the State and Federal courts. Under the vicious legislation to which we have referred, only one person in fifteen, outside of the towns and cities, is the owner of a home in the land States of the South. In the State of California quite a number of men own hundreds of thousands of acres each, and in crossing the lands of one of these you are obliged to travel seventy-five miles. These monopolists, in league with the navigation and railway companies and banking corporations of the State, naturally favor the cooly traffic, since it supplies a background of degraded and pauperized labor, on which a splendid aristocracy of wealth may fitly and securely flourish. The curse of monopoly in the States of the Northwest, caused by the cruel commerce in land which the Government has encouraged, has been an irreparable blight to their prosperity. Great estates are everywhere tending to swallow up the smaller ones and to produce a constantly multiplying and crouching tenantry."

When we read such statements, we understand at least in part why it is that when this matter is brought before Congress some mysterious agency clogs its movements.

Moreover, considering the tendency of all governments to ally themselves with property, rather than with the people, owing largely to a political economy which is as fallacious as it is inhuman, we ought perhaps not to be surprised at the shameful history of our squandered possessions. But it ought to be manifest that a radical change of management is demanded, and whenever these lands are set apart for the use and benefit of their owners, we may expect a wiser administration of this great subject.

An impediment of a different sort consists in the want of faith in popular education, which is not unknown even in the North and is common in the South, though much less common than it was twenty years ago. The unbelief in the South is readily accounted for by its adherence to old traditions, by the influence of English literature, by the institution of slavery, and above all by the controversy in respect to slavery, which by the law of moral dynamics drove the defenders of slavery into a depreciation of the claims of laboring people and a denial of the power of common school education to improve this class. These views were applied a fortiori to the negro. The tremendous logic of events has made astonishing changes of sentiment, but the dregs of all these old ideas and feelings lie scattered about. And in addition to these the early post war history stirred up new difficulties, so that altogether we find that our cause has to wade through seas and sands, with now and then a battle.

And so we might speak of the opposition which comes from those who from theory or private interest or ecclesiastical influence oppose, or at least dislike, all governmental aid to education, although this form of opposition does not usually extend to the high grades of education. And to this wearisome list we might add the highstrung State rights men, who are very jealous of Federal gifts to the education of the people, but get very fearless of Federal money and Federal power when the river and harbor budget comes along.

But in dealing with public men we must bear in mind their representative character, and we must especially remember that our whole argument is based upon the fact that the people do rule. Representatives must therefore be persuaded that, even if the people have not already formally approved, they will approve of Federal contributions to education—Federal contribution, not Federal control, which latter all are opposed to.

It seems to me that any thoughtful man who understands this subject must be convinced that the people will not only approve this contribution, but will demand it, certainly to the extent of requiring the proceeds of the public lands to be set apart for this object. Put before the people for their votes a line of railroad through the Rocky Mountains on one side and a line of school-houses at home on the other, and can any one doubt which they would prefer? Ask the great West what it thinks of schools for the people as contrasted with thirty thousand acre wheat fields obtained at small cost out of the people's land. Ask the people of the Atlantic seaboard if it was with their consent that a semicontinental domain should be lavishly given to almost everybody and everything except to them, the original owners, buyers, or givers, who bought or gave for the common use and benefit; and, so far from getting anything back have seen their own property so used as to drain their States of population and increase their burdens.

You need not ask what the southern people think, or will think, when they come to understand that in one end of the scales is their salvation and the other a cage filled with corporation kings, land operators, and abstractionists of the old school! I shall only hint at the sentiment of Virginia when the story of the Northwest Territory is told once more.

The people all—West and East, South and North—will assuredly understand this whole matter, and when they do understand it there will be no more need for argument.

Ideas, like seeds, cannot take root until the conditions are right. The moon must be in the right sign. Hitherto the conditions have not been right for this idea, but the conditions are now right, and we may confidently expect it to grow and spread, the only danger being that it will spread too wildly. The era of the oak is giving way to the era of the pine. God forbid that we should pass on to the era of broom sedge and prairie fires. By which I mean that the social and political era of the past is different from that of the present, and the present is possibly different from that of the future. The people are claiming more for themselves through the Government, and if this has to be accomplished by revolution it will run into a terrible socialism. My firm belief is that socialism cannot long prevail in a Government like ours. But we are on the line which points in that direction. The people, as distinguished from leaders, parties, and social belongings of all sorts, are coming to the front, and henceforth property, party, and government itself must become secondary and directly subservient to the interests of the people. The Massachusetts of to-day is not the Massachusetts of fifty years ago. The railroad riots of two or three years ago in Pennsylvania are something very different from the whisky insurrection. The sand-lot multitudes of California have a very different meaning from the nullifiers of the days of Andrew Jackson or the church burners of Philadelphia. The whole country wears a different aspect from what it wore forty years ago. The same may be said of Europe. And at the bottom of all is the same idea, and the impending dangers are the same in all. And out of all this may come something grandly good or horribly bad, according to the wisdom or folly of those who have the management of the crisis. This is no time for the reign of pessimism. True, we want eyes of honest discernment to see that there are real evils in social affairs, and to see just what they are, but we also want wise heads and brave hearts to devise and execute that which is best. This is not the occasion for discussing this subject fully, but the true line of action is indicated when I say that the safety of society lies not in T. R. Malthus, not in courts, policemen, or gunpowder, although temporarily all these might be needed. Where, then, must we look? To the people; to these threatening masses who, wrong, will rend society to pieces, but who, right, will be her grandest muniment.

In our southern country extreme conservatism has been the controlling spirit during most of our history, and it had much to recommend it. In its older aspects it was social feudalism, refined and knightly, and its typical representative was an honest gentleman. But no oligarchical form of society could be permanent in this country, and this had begun to relax before 1861. And the events of the war opened the eyes of the privileged class to the value of the common people. And after the war no man would have ventured to talk about the "mudsills" of society.

But in the post war period society was thrown into chaos by the sudden rise and speedy departure of an opposite condition of affairs. This was the carpet-bag period, whose lessons ought never to be forgotten, because it gave an ocular demonstration in most States of how suddenly and how surely death strikes to the heart of society when ignorance under the lead of rascality rules the land. And this period will go into history as the darkest of all. After it came a reaction in favor of conservatism. But the crystallizations of the past had been broken, and the scattered fragments could not be reunited. Society is still unsettled, and no man can forecast the future. Many good men are gloomy and despairing. Some would only croak and groan; others would curse and fight. But all this is foolish and unavailing. The panacea for the ills of society is not malevolence, but sympathy; and this sympathy must not be a sentimental vapor or a smiling hypocrisy, but be of that substantial sort which provokes an honest study of each other's wants. To put your arm around a shabby voter when leading him to the polls is one thing; to study how you may permanently better the man and improve his lot in life, is quite another thing.

Nearly thirty years ago Stephen Colwell brought a heavy indictment against the whole existing science of political economy, because it regarded the products of men as the chief concern of government, instead of the men themselves. And it has been pleasant to observe how students of social and governmental science are gradually reaching the conclusion that the main concern of governments ought to be, not railroads, tariffs, money, and such like, but the personal character and well being of the people. Property does not make men, but men make property. Shall we be forever worshipping the thing made and care not for the maker?

And when we are trying to move Congress in this matter of help to educate the people, we may claim that we are doing a great service in exalting the sphere of legislation. Could we only establish man as the central figure in this wearisome wilderness of legislation, we would perform a public service far beyond the value of the landed domain. We would put a splendid policy of insurance on all the great interests of society. If one-tenth part of the legislation and the money now spent on material interests were spent directly on the people, the material interests would largely take care of themselves.

The world has never yet fully tested the power of education in forming a free society, unless ancient Athens be an exception. Though education in the true sense is not compatible with arbitrary government, and must produce turbulence, education is life and health to a free government. We do not boast of our popular education; it might be, it ought to be a great deal better. Even in the States which have longest had school systems, children on an average do not get much over five months' schooling annually. And what are the school teachers of America compared with what they might be; and how many subjects ought to be taught to the people, that are wholly omitted—moral, social, and governmental subjects of the greatest moment. Some people ridiculed General Burnside's bill to teach the virtues in the public schools, but this is not a suggestion to be whistled down the wind. What are all the things about which there is so much legislation, compared with a virtuous, enlightened, orderly, industrious people? And this sort of people are made, not born; and considered in mass they must be made by their governments, or they will not be made at all.

I know not what is true of Northern and Western States, but I can say for my State and for most of the Southern States, we are not able to educate our people in any tolerable sense; we are too poor to do it. A few years ago I showed this conclusively by statistics, and many of these statements you will find embodied in a printed document prepared by Hon. A. H. H. Stuart, of Virginia, and presented to the meeting of the Peabody trustees held on yesterday; and I still have a few copies of my original argument. There has not been much increase in financial ability in these States since that time—no increase on an average in my own State, so far as I can judge. And every well informed man knows that, whatever be the wants of a State, her power of taxation has a limit beyond which it must not go. By which is meant, not simply that there is a point beyond which the people will not go, but a point beyond which they ought not to go. It is, I think, a settled principle that taxation must keep within the average annual profits of the taxpayers; when it begins to eat into the capital of the country, it is like consumption of the lungs in the human constitution: decline sets in from that point. And there is no form of obligation which imposes upon a State the act of felo de se.

A State may press nearer to the extreme verge of ability in levying taxes for education than for almost any other object, because education is a reproductive force. But inasmuch as this force is gradual and somewhat slow in producing its effects, the cost of education might in some cases reduce the vitality of a State to so low a point that a fatal decline would set in before the point of reaction could be reached.

No doubt bold assertions have been made without much reference to the facts in regard to the ability or want of ability of some States to increase taxes, men being tempted to take one side or the other, according to their sentiments on other questions; but I fear that in a number of southern States the extreme limit of taxation has been reached. Although the ratio of taxes to the amount of property is less than in some prosperous States, the ratio of taxes to annual profits is exceedingly large. A low rate of taxation on a people not improving is more oppressive than a high rate on a prosperous people.

And in the South public education is a more costly affair than it is in the North, because of the necessity for having separate schools for white and colored children. If there are forty school children in a neighborhood, and one-half of them are white and the other half colored, there must be two school-houses and two teachers, where otherwise one would be sufficient. It is idle for any one to suggest a mixture of the races. It can't be done. We must educate in separate schools, or not at all. When the ratio of the school tax is considered it will be seen that most of the Southern States are making liberal appropriations for education. But these appropriations must be greatly increased before the people can receive the training demanded by the public safety. And we must educate or surrender, and accept the destiny of Spain, and Turkey, and Mexico. We can become the Bœotia, the Ireland, the Poland of the American Government. We can die as to civilization, as many states have died before; we can hang as a body of death on the back of the Great Republic. But does the nation desire this? If not, why is it that a measure which has more medicine in it for the healing of the nation than all else put together has been so slow of recognition in quarters where prompt sympathy might justly have been anticipated?

On what principle of humanity or self-interest could the nation justify indifference to a group of States which have in them even now so much that is admirable, so many men and women of the highest type, so many young men in whose blood courses the culture of centuries, so many warm hearts that could be made enthusiastic for their country? These are the elements which give dignity and moral power to a nation; and that government is blind or jaundiced which will allow such glories to perish.

And to these add the material outcome of these southern States in their mineral wealth, in their tobacco, cotton, rice, sugar, tropical fruits; and, in the future, tea certainly, and perhaps coffee, cinchona, and many other valuable productions not yet introduced. By the fiat of God the nation must look south for these things or do without them.

Now ought a proposition to give a very little help to a very great cause like this—ought such a proposition to be compelled to watch and scheme and fight for even a half hour's consideration on the floor of Congress? And may not Congress with all propriety do what we ask? One of the chief functions of every government is to avert dangers and cure evils which are beyond the ability of the members affected. Indeed there is no definition of the object of government which will bear examination except this, that its object is the good of the people. I do not forget the complex nature of our American Government. I was brought up on the controversy as to State rights and Federal rights; but, without rearguing dead issues, it might be enough for us to say that this is not like ordinary petitions for aid; it is simply asking for a return, to the owners, of property which Congress is holding as fiduciary, and which the suffering owners need for necessary current expenses. There need not be any constitutional qualms on the subject. And, even if anybody would wish to honor the ashes of a defunct controversy, he would get his fingers dreadfully burned if he were to act upon it. For here is Congress now actively engaged in the work of improving harbors, deepening rivers, establishing light-houses, granting subsidies to railroads, geologizing the Rocky Mountains, surveying the country in order to have accurate maps and charts, maintaining life saving stations along the coast, and engaging in other wise and beneficent enterprises. If Congress may do these things, there can be no question as to its power to make appropriations in aid of the most important of all causes, the formation of national character and the rescue of the people from degradation and misery.

THE NEGRO.

Coming as I do from a southern State, Mr. President and brother superintendents, you will expect me to say something specially about the negro, whose fate is to be determined largely by what the Federal Government does for him or leaves undone.

It is just ten years since I entered upon my present work; and I have studied nothing so much as the negro, because he is an enigma, and yet a part of my work. I have seen him in all sections of my own State. I have read everything I could find in regard to him everywhere. I have listened to everything pro and con that anybody had to say about him. And my impression in regard to his spirit and capacity is just this:

(1) He wants to do right, and he is the most amiable of the races. He is also the most religious of human beings, and the character of his religion is improving. It controls his daily life more than formerly. Among these people there are many centres of great moral power.

(2) The negro craves education, and I believe that this desire has increased. It certainly has not diminished. He makes fully as great sacrifices to send his children to school as the laboring classes of whites.

(3) The civilization of the race is progressing, and even faster than his thoughtful friends anticipated.

(4) The negro is fond of politics, and he has just one principle of political action, and that is to go with those who will do most, or lead him to think they will do most, to advance his interest. He has an eye to the past, but a much sharper eye to the future. He has no strong faith in men or parties, and he will go hither and thither according as his confidence is gained at the moment. He is most suspicious of those who have heretofore formed the controlling element in southern society and politics. There are occasional divisions of political sentiment among the negroes, but the great body of them move in mass, thus giving an illustration of "the unanimity of ignorance."

(5) But finally, as a class, they are in character weak and ignorant, and hence to that extent a dangerous element in society. We cannot expect that the mass of them, any more than the mass of ignorant white people, will be controlled by high and broad views while in their present condition; and there is no way of making them safe members of society but by educating them. The negroes are a highly improvable

race. A surprising proportion of enlightened, right thinking men have already risen from their ranks, men who have taken a respectable position: some in the learned professions, some in editing and printing newspapers, and some in the management of business; and, what is not less commendable, great numbers are living worthy lives in the humble occupations. The colored children learn well at school and show good effects promptly. But the kind and amount of education they are receiving or can receive with our present means is wholly inadequate to the great work of fitting them as a race for duties laid upon them by the Federal Government. And the race generally is far below the demands made upon it. No stronger claim to education ever existed than the claim of the negro race in these Southern States upon the Government which set them free and made them citizens; and this claim will be rung in the ear of Congress until itis responded to. It is a great plea of so much force in itself and supported by collateral reasons of such tremendous weight that it must prevail.

SUMMARY.

In conclusion, the points made or assumed in the remarks now made are: (1) That there is an enormous and most dangerous mass of ignorance existing in the whole United States, and that this is particularly true of the southern States, where the poor circumstances of the people forbid an effective system of common school education; (2) that these ignorant classes, white and colored, improve readily under right influences; (3) that we have entered upon a peculiarly critical period, in which there is an ominous disposition on the part of the masses of the people to discard old leadership and to lay hold of the controlling forces of society; (4) that safety and justice alike demand that the people shall be educated in right views and habits, and thus be made the unconquerable defenders of order and property; (5) that the subject demands the immediate attention of the Congress of the United States.

THE BILLS BEFORE CONGRESS.

There are now two bills before Congress—one before the Senate and one before the House—each of which provides that the proceeds of the public lands shall be set apart for education. But there are important differences between these bills. The one before the Senate (No. 133) adds to the income from lands the income also from patents. Both bills contain the excellent feature that for the first ten years the apportionment among the States shall be made on the basis of the illiterate population over ten years of age; but the Senate bill requires that one-third of the money shall be given to the agricultural colleges established under the congressional act of 1862. This I regard as a very objectionable feature. It is well known that as a rule these colleges have been failures; but even if they were less open to criticism their claims for subsidy are insignificant compared with the claim of the great body of the people for a decent common school education. The House bill (No. 334) provides that one-fourth of this money shall be given to those colleges unless "the State legislature shall otherwise direct." This is better, but it would have been still better to say that one-fourth *may* be so given.

The Senate bill provides also that after the first year the income from lands and patents shall be invested and only the interest apportioned. This would be affording a very slight relief to States which are now in great need and whose circumstances may be expected to improve. The House bill for the first five years distributes the whole income, and after five years distributes half and invests half. This is far better. The pinch with the Southern States is now.

The terms on which this money is to be distributed are wholly unobjectionable, and include no kind or degree of control by the Federal Government over education in the States. Nothing is required but a report showing that the money has been applied to the free education of the children. I think it would be well to require that this report should contain a summary of the educational statistics of the State for the benefit of the Bureau of Education.

Mr. **ORR**, of Georgia, followed, indorsing very fully the points made by Mr. Ruffner, but excused himself from making any extended remarks, saying he had already discussed the subject before the association, and his speech had been printed and extensively circulated.

Messrs. **PHILBRICK**, **WICKERSHAM**, and **ARMSTRONG** each spoke briefly, but very cordially indorsed Mr. Ruffner's resolution, which was adopted unanimously.

The department then adjourned sine die.

APPENDIX A.

LAWS RELATING TO THE ESTABLISHMENT AND GOVERNMENT OF THE STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN, LOCATED AT COLDWATER, MICH.

The first eight sections are omitted, as they relate only to the location of the school and the construction of the buildings.

SEC. 9. The general supervision and government of said State public school shall be vested in a board of control, to consist of three members, who shall be appointed by the governor, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, the members of which board shall hold their offices for the respective terms of two, four, and six years from the last day of the session of the legislature next after the completion of said State public school building and until their successors shall be appointed and qualified, said respective terms of office to be designated in their several appointments; and thereafter there shall be one of said board appointed every two years, whose term of office shall continue for six years, or until his successor is appointed and qualified. The members of said board shall constitute a body corporate, under the name and style of the "Board of Control of the State Public School," with the right of suing and being sued, of making and using a common seal, and altering it at pleasure. That said board of control shall have the power of taking and holding, by purchase, gift, donation, device, or bequest, real or personal estate to be applied to the use of the institution.

SEC. 10. It shall be the duty of said board of control to meet once in three months on its own adjournments, and oftener if necessary; that the said board shall elect from its own number a president, secretary, and treasurer, each of whom shall hold his office during the pleasure of said board; that the said treasurer shall give his bond to the people of this State, with two or more sufficient sureties to be approved by said board and the governor, in the penal sum of at least ten thousand dollars, or in such additional penal sum as said board may require, conditioned for the faithful performance of the duties required of him by law, and to account for and pay over as required by law all moneys received by him as such treasurer. The said board of control shall establish a system of government for the institution, and shall make all necessary rules and regulations for enforcing discipline, imparting instruction, preserving health, and for the [proper] physical, intellectual, and moral training of the children. The said board shall appoint a superintendent, a matron, and such other officers, teachers, and employés as shall be necessary, who shall severally hold their offices or places during the pleasure of said board; and that said board shall prescribe their duties and fix their salaries, subject to the approval of the governor.

SEC. 11. There shall be received as pupils in said school those children who are declared dependent on the public for support, as provided in this act, who are over three and under fourteen years of age, and who are in suitable condition of body and mind to receive instruction. That said board is authorized, in admitting children, to give preference to those under twelve years of age. That those admitted, unless sent from the institution as provided by this act, shall be retained until they are sixteen years of age, and may be retained after that age, in the option of said board, until a home is procured for them. That said board is authorized to return to the county sending it any child when it shall become sixteen years of age and no home has been procured, or whenever after its admission it shall be ascertained to the satisfaction of said board that the child was of unsound mind or unsound body at the time of its admission, or if for any other reason said board shall consider said child an improper inmate of said school; that, in the case of the return of any child as herein provided to the county sending it, the guardianship of this board shall cease, and the child shall again become a charge on the county sending it. The said board of control shall report in writing to the superintendents of the county poor of the proper county the reason for returning the child.

SEC. 12. The children in such school shall be maintained and educated in the branches usually taught in common schools, and shall have proper physical and moral training.

SEC. 13. It is declared to be the object of this act to provide for such children only temporary homes until homes can be procured for them in families. It shall be the duty of such board of control to use all diligence to provide suitable places in good families for all such pupils as have received an elementary education; and any other pupils may be placed in good families on condition that their education shall be provided for in the public schools of the town or city where they may reside. That said board of control are hereby made the legal guardians of all the children who may become inmates of said school, with authority to bind out any child to a pursuit or trade during minority, under a contract insuring the child kind and proper treatment and a fair elementary education.

SEC. 14. That whenever there shall be sufficient room for the reception of the class of children described in this act in such State public school, no such children shall hereafter be maintained in county poorhouses. That in receiving such children into such school preference shall be given first to dependent and indigent orphans or half orphans of deceased soldiers and sailors of this State.

SEC. 15. As soon as the State public school buildings are ready for the admission of inmates, and thereafter semiannually, and whenever inquired of by the superintendents of the poor, it shall be the duty of the secretary of the board of control to notify the superintendents of the poor of each county how many children of the county notified can be received in said school. That the admission for dependent children in said school shall be, as near as practical, divided among the several counties in proportion to the number of dependent children in each. That it shall be the duty of the superintendents of the poor of each county to forward to said school any dependent and neglected children that are entitled by this act to admission thereto in the manner herein provided. All expenses attending the forwarding of such children, and of the examination herein provided for, and of returning to the counties where they belong children not entitled to admission, shall be defrayed by the county to which they belong, by the county treasurer, out of the funds appropriated to the support of the poor belonging to such county, after being allowed and certified by the county superintendents.

Section 15 was amended April 5, 1875, by the following section: "The expense of transportation of children who may be sent to said school pursuant to law shall be audited by the board of State auditors and paid out of the general fund."

SEC. 16. Before the superintendents of the poor shall send any child to said school, they shall cause him to be brought before the judge of probate in the county where the child belongs, for examination by the judge of probate as to his alleged dependence; and it shall be the duty of the superintendents of the poor of each county, in the case of children in the poorhouses or other children which shall be found in a state of want or suffering or being abandoned or improperly exposed, or children in any orphan asylum where the officers thereof desire to surrender them to the care of the State, whenever there shall be a vacancy for their county in said school, to bring such children before the said judge of probate for said examination; and it shall thereupon be the duty of the said judge of probate to investigate the facts in each case and ascertain whether such children are dependent; their ages, names, and residence of parents, and in what county, poorhouse, or orphan asylum they have been kept, if any, and for how long a time; and said judge of probate shall have power to compel the attendance of witnesses, and may, in his discretion, request the attendance of the prosecuting attorney for such examinations; and, if so requested, it shall be the duty of such prosecuting attorney to attend in behalf of the county. The parents or any friend may appear in behalf of any child, and, in his discretion, the said judge of probate may request any supervisor of any town or ward to appear in behalf of any child; and if, on such examination, the said judge of probate shall find that any child is dependent and neglected, he shall enter such finding by a proper order in the journal of the probate court in his office, and shall deliver to the superintendent of the poor procuring such examination a certified copy of such order, which shall contain, besides said findings, a statement of the facts, so far as ascertained, as to the age of the child, names and residence of parents, and name of the county poorhouse or orphan asylum where the child has been maintained, and the length of time of such maintenance; and in the case of the examination of two or more children at the same time, only one order need be made; and said certified copy of said order shall be delivered with the child at said school to the superintendent thereof.

SEC. 17. It shall be the duty of said board of control to provide and always keep open for inspection of all persons desiring to examine it a book in which shall be registered the names and ages of the children received in said school, and the residence of parents as near as can be ascertained, in which book shall also be recorded the date when the child is received and when the child left the school, and whether the child was apprenticed, placed in a family, or otherwise, and, if placed in a family, the name, residence, and occupation of the head of such family, and, if apprenticed, to whom.

SEC. 19. The said board of control is authorized to designate some officer, teacher, or other employé connected with said school to act as the agent thereof, and who shall act in that capacity during the pleasure of said board of control, and shall be known as the agent of the State public school; and his duties as such agent shall be prescribed by said board, and shall include the visiting, as often and at such times as said board of control shall determine, any and all children placed in charge of any person by said board of control; to inquire into the condition of such children, and make such investigation as may be necessary in relation thereto, and report the same to said board of control; to investigate all applications to take such children, by adoption or otherwise, to such suitable persons who are willing to adopt, take charge of, or otherwise take and keep any children sent to said school, and to enter into a contract in writing, in behalf and under the instructions of said board of control, with the persons taking such child; and all such contracts shall contain a clause reserving to said board of control the right to withdraw the child from any person having him when, in the opinion of the board, the welfare of the child requires it. The said agent, while acting as such, shall be paid his necessary travelling expenses by the treasurer of said board of control, after being allowed and certified by said board of control.

SEC. 20. The said board of control shall make out biennially and report to the legislature at its regular session a detailed statement of the operations of said institution for the two years closing with the fiscal year preceding said session, which shall include a report of the treasurer of the board of all receipts and disbursements for the same period. It shall also be the duty of said board to cause to be made out by the superintendent or other proper officer and forwarded to the office of the superintendent of public instruction, on or before the first day of November in each year, a report for the fiscal year, setting forth the condition of the institution, the amount of receipts and expenditures, the number of teachers and other officers and compensation of each, the number of inmates that have received instruction, the studies pursued and the books used; also, the mode of instruction and discipline prescribed, and such other information and suggestions as may be deemed important or the superintendent of public instruction may require to embody in the report of his department. The members of said board shall be allowed the expenses necessarily incurred by them in the discharge of their official duties and three dollars per day for their official services actually and necessarily performed, which shall be audited by the board of State auditors.

SEC. 21. That whenever the superintendents of the poor of any county shall bring any child before the judge of probate for examination as to his alleged dependence, as provided in section sixteen of this act, they shall present to said judge an application in writing, which shall be filed in his office for such examination, which shall be signed by at least two of said superintendents, in which they shall certify that in their opinion the child named is dependent on the public for support, and that he has no parents against whom his support can be enforced, as provided in chapter forty-nine of the compiled laws of eighteen hundred and seventy-one.

SEC. 22. That the superintendent or agent or board of control of the State public school is hereby authorized to consent to the adoption of any child who has or shall become an inmate of said institution by any person or persons pursuant to the provisions of an act entitled an act to provide for changing the names of minor adopted children and of other persons, approved February second, eighteen hundred and sixty-one, and that on such adoption the said board of control shall cease to be the guardian of the child so adopted.

SEC. 23. That whenever on [the] examination provided for in this act the judge of probate shall determine that the child is dependent on the public for support, he shall cause it to be examined by the county physician, if there be one, and, if not, then by a respectable practising physician, and shall in no case enter the order in his journal showing the child is admissible to this school unless the physician making such examination shall certify in writing, under oath, filed in said court, that the child examined by him is, in his opinion, of sound mind and has no chronic or contagious disease, and in his opinion has not been exposed to any contagious disease within fifteen days previous to such examination before the judge of probate; that a copy of such certificate shall be attached to the other papers provided by this act, to accompany each child to this school.

DUTIES OF COUNTY AGENT REPRESENTING STATE BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

SECTION 1. *The people of the State of Michigan enact*, That the governor may appoint in each county of this State an agent of the board of State commissioners for the general supervision of charitable, penal, pauper, and reformatory institutions, who shall hold his office at the pleasure of the governor. * * * Said agent shall receive as compensation for his time and services his actual expenses necessarily incurred while engaged in the performance of his duties under this act, on being fully stated in account and verified by the affidavit of the agent, together with the sum of three dollars in full for his services in each case investigated and reported upon, as hereinafter prescribed; [which] when approved by the governor, shall be paid by the State treasurer, on the warrant of the auditor general, out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated: *Provided*, That the sum so allowed for the services of such agent in any county, except the county of Wayne, shall not in any one year exceed the sum of one hundred dollars, and that in the county of Wayne the sum so allowed for such services shall not in any one year exceed the sum of two hundred dollars.

SEC. 3. Said agent shall as often as once in each year visit all children resident in the county for which he is appointed who shall have been indentured or placed in charge of any person therein by any State board or officer of the State, and shall inquire into the management, condition, and treatment of such children, and for that purpose may have private interviews with such children at any time; and if it shall come to the knowledge of such agent that any child thus placed in charge of any person as aforesaid is neglected, abused, or improperly treated by the person having such child in charge, or that the person holding the child is unfit to have the care thereof, he shall report the fact to the board or officers of the institution by which such child was indentured, and such board or officers shall cancel the contract and cause the child to be returned to the institution from whence he or she was taken, or indentured to some other person, or to be discharged, in the discretion of the board of officers. In all contracts or indentures for binding out children from any State institution the officers making the same shall expressly reserve the right to cancel the contract whenever in their judgment the interests of the child are not properly cared for.

SEC. 4. No child shall be indentured, adopted, or taken during minority by any person not of kin thereto from a State institution until notice of an application therefor has been given to the agent aforesaid residing in the county from which such application is made, and until his report in writing, made after an investigation into the propriety thereof, has been made and filed with the officers of such institution. And all applications for the release or discharge of any children so indentured or placed in charge of persons in such county shall be given to said agent for his report in like manner.

SEC. 5. It shall be the duty of said agents in their respective counties to seek out suitable persons who are willing to adopt, take charge of, educate, and maintain children arrested for offenses, committed to any State institution, or abandoned and neglected children in charge of any State institution or officers, and to give notice thereof to the boards or officers having authority to dispose of such children. And said agents shall from time to time make report of their doings under this section to the board of which they are agents.

SEC. 6. * * * Said agent shall also keep a brief history of each child within his county discharged as aforesaid, in a manner and form to be prescribed by the board of which he is agent, and report the same from time to time to said board as it may require, to the end that the effect of the treatment and discipline of the several institutions of the State for the care and reformation of juvenile delinquents upon their discharge therefrom may be better known and understood.

SEC. 7. This act shall not apply to any county of the State in which no agent shall be appointed by the governor under and by virtue of the provisions hereof.

REGULATIONS OF THE BOARD OF CONTROL CONCERNING RECEIVING AND INDENTURING CHILDREN.

(1) The superintendent is authorized and instructed to be and act as the agent of the State Public School. All correspondence between the institution and county officials agents of the board of corrections and charities, and those to whom children are indentured, shall be conducted by him. He shall divide the admissions pro rata amongthe counties, as provided by law, and shall notify county officials when children can be admitted. When practicable, on receiving new children, they shall be detained ten days in the hospital for quarantine.

(2) It is also the special duty of the agent to procure good homes for the children and supervise them after indenture. He shall cause each child indentured to be visited at least once each year by the agent of the State board of charities and corrections of the proper county where there is one, and where there is none by some county officer. He shall also require the person with whom the child lives to report concerning the child at least once in each year. It shall be the duty of the agent to see that all contracts of indenture are faithfully executed and that all violations of such contracts are promptly reported to the board. Whenever he shall ascertain that the interest of the child requires the cancellation of any such contract, he is authorized, with the approval of the agent of the State board of charities and corrections, to return such child to the school, subject to the action of the board.

(3) No child shall be indentured for a less term than provided by law. In all in-

denture contracts the time fixed for the child to attend school will be determined by the age and education of the child when it leaves the school. It will be the object of the agent to secure a good education for the child rather than the payment of money. The agent will make special effort to place the children by indenture in the country, and to avoid as far as possible placing the older children in large villages or cities.

(4) No child is to be retained in the institution when it can be placed in a suitable home, but the object of the institution is not to hurry children into poor homes. The welfare of the child is the first and last object to be attained. In indenturing and supervising children, especial attention is requested to the law controlling this institution.

(5) The following are suggested as suitable forms for applying for and indenturing children. In addition to these, the superintendent shall prepare and use suitable blanks for ascertaining the condition of indentured children and securing the faithful execution of the indenture contracts:

STATE OF MICHIGAN.

To the board of control of the State public school:

I hereby make application to have ——— ———, one of your wards, indentured to me during minority, pursuant to an act entitled "An act to establish a State public school for dependent and neglected children," approved April 17, 1871, and the acts amendatory thereof. I am a resident of ———, in the county of ———, and my post-office address is ———. My occupation is that of ———, and my home consists of the following real estate owned by me: ——— ———. My family consists of the following members: ——— ———. The district school, which is maintained at least three months ,each year, is — mile- from my residence.

Dated ——— ———, 188-.

To the board of control:

After a careful investigation, I hereby certify that the above-named applicant is a resident of the place named by him, where he has a good home. That he is a person of good moral character, is temperate, does not sell intoxicating liquor as a beverage, and that I believe he will properly provide for, educate, and otherwise faithfully execut the contract indenturing the child to him.[1]

Dated, ———, 188-.

STATE OF MICHIGAN.—BOARD OF CONTROL OF THE STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

This agreement between the board of control of the State public school, by authority of an act entitled "An act to establish a State public school for dependent and neglected children," approved April 17, 1871, and the other acts amendatory thereto, of the first part, and ——— ———, of the town of ———, witnesseth that it is mutually agreed between said parties by these presents, as follows:

That said board hereby places ——— ———, an inmate of said institution, in the family of said ——— ——— until the —— day of ——, 18—, when the child will be 21 years of age, reserving the right to cancel this agreement and return said child to this institution whenever, in the opinion of this board, the conditions of this contract are not faithfully executed, or when otherwise the interest of the child requires it.

The said ——— ——— takes the child and agrees to keep it until said —— day of ———, 18—, treating it kindly and parentally as his own child (except as to inheritance of property). That he will provide it with suitable apparel, both for working days and for attending public religious worship, and with suitable food, and all other necessaries in health and in sickness. That he will teach it the business of ———, and the branches usually taught in the common schools, and will have it attend the district school where he resides at least three months in each year. That if the child remains with him until the expiration of said time he will then pay it the sum of —— dollars and two good suits of clothes. That whenever requested by the superintendent of this institution, he will report in writing to him such facts in regard to the child as he shall request, and that he will furnish the child with materials and opportunity to correspond with said superintendent.[1]

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[1] The recommendation must be signed by the agent of the State board of corrections and charities, if there is one in the county where the applicant resides, and, if not, then by any county officer or two respectable citizens of that county. Before placing a child on trial or indenturing the same it must be made to appear satisfactorily to the superintendent that the applicant is temperate, does not sell intoxicating liquors as a beverage, that he has a good home, and is a person of good moral character, and will faithfully execute the contract indenturing the child to him.

In witness whereof the said board of control, by the agent of this institution, hereby sets its hand and seal this —— day of ———, 18—.

(Signed) ——— ———, [L. S.]
Agent of the State Public School.
(Signed) ——— ———. [L. S.]

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[1] In case the person taking the child hereafter desires to adopt it, blanks and instructions will be furnished by addressing the superintendent at Coldwater. In case of adoption, the child becomes the heir at law of the person adopting it.

APPENDIX B.

AN OUTLINE OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF THE VARIOUS STATES.

I.—CHIEF EDUCATIONAL OFFICER.

His appointment, duties, &c.

INDEX.

a. Title, mode of appointment, and term.
b. Visitation and addresses.
c. Relation to school moneys.
d. Judicial functions.
e. Prepares blank forms.
f. Receives reports or collects statistics.
g. Makes reports.
h. Ex officio relations.
i. Power in regard to State licenses.
j. Power to bring actions.
k. Power as to text books.
l. Power to make appointments.
m. Miscellaneous.

Alabama: (*a*) State superintendent of education, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) visits each county yearly; (*f*) receives statistical and financial reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes annual reports to the governor; (*l*) appoints county superintendents.

Arkansas: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) holds normal institutes annually in each judicial district; (*c*) apportions school revenues semiannually; (*d*) construes the school law; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county examiners; (*g*) makes annual reports to the governor; (*h*) is secretary of the board of commissioners of the common school fund; (*i*) issues State certificates; (*j*) brings suits to recover misapplied school money; (*k*) recommends text books.

California: (*a*) Superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for four years; (*b*) visits the different counties; (*c*) apportions State school funds, and draws warrants for the proper disbursements; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives reports; (*g*) makes reports to the governor; (*h*) is secretary of State board of education and chairman of State board of examination.

Colorado: (*a*) Superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people every two years; (*b*) visits counties and delivers addresses; (*c*) apportions school revenues semiannually; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes biennial reports to the governor; (*h*) is president of the State board of education; (*l*) may appoint an assistant librarian.

Connecticut: (*a*) Secretary of State board of education, appointed by the board for an indefinite term; (*b*) visits different parts of the State; (*e*) causes blank forms to be printed and distributed; (*g*) makes annual reports to State board; (*m*) receives and distributes educational State documents.

Delaware: (*a*) Superintendent of public instruction, appointed by the governor annually; (*b*) visits every school once each year; (*g*) makes annual report to the governor; (*i*) examines and licenses teachers.

Florida: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, appointed by the governor for four years; (*d*) hears appeals; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives statistical reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes reports to the governor; (*h*) is president of the State board of education; (*i*) examines candidates for State license, and issues the same.

Georgia: (*a*) State school commissioner, appointed by the governor for four years; (*b*) visits different parts of the State and delivers addresses; (*c*) apportions school revenues; (*d*) construes school law and hears appeals; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*g*) makes reports to general assembly; (*j*) causes actions to be brought for misapplication of school moneys.

Illinois: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for four years; (*b*) visits State educational institutions; (*d*) construes school law; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes reports to the governor; (*h*) is secretary of State board of education; (*i*) examines candidates for State license, and issues the same.

Indiana: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) visits counties and delivers addresses; (*c*) apportions school revenues; (*d*) construes school law and hears appeals; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents and from county auditors; (*g*) makes reports to the governor and the general assembly; (*h*) is president of State board of education and trustee of State normal school; (*j*) causes actions to be brought for misapplication of school moneys.

Iowa: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) visits teachers' institutes; (*d*) construes school law and hears appeals; (*f*) collects statistics; (*g*) makes reports to the general assembly; (*h*) is regent of the State university.

Kansas: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) visits each county at least once in his term; (*c*) apportions school revenues; (*d*) construes school law, and hears appeals from joint school districts; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes biennial reports to the governor; (*h*) is member of State board of education and secretary of State board of school-fund commissioners; (*k*) recommends text books; (*l*) may appoint an assistant superintendent of public instruction.

Kentucky: (*a*) Superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for four years; (*c*) has general supervision of public schools; (*d*) construes school law and hears appeals; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents and certain State institutions; (*g*) makes annual reports to the legislature; (*h*) is member of State board of education.

Louisiana: (*a*) State superintendent of education, elected by the people for four years; (*b*) visits each parish at least once a year; (*c*) makes quarterly apportionment of school money; (*f*) receives reports from parish trustees; (*g*) makes annual reports to auditor of State, State board of education, and general assembly; (*h*) is secretary of State board of education.

Maine: (*a*) State superintendent of common schools, appointed by the governor for three years; (*g*) makes annual reports to the governor and council; (*h*) is superintendent of State normal school; (*m*) prescribes the studies for the common schools.

Maryland: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction ex officio; (*h*) is secretary of the State board of education and president of the State Normal School. By virtue of the latter office he is State superintendent.

Massachusetts: (*a*) Secretary of State board of education, appointed by the board; (*b*) visits schools and delivers addresses; (*g*) makes annual reports. The State board appoints three *general agents*, who, acting under the secretary of the board, visit the schools and supervise school work.

Michigan: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) visits institutes and delivers addresses; (*c*) apportions school revenues; (*d*) construes the school law; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from superintendents of schools and all State institutions; (*g*) makes reports to the governor.

Minnesota: (*a*) Superintendent of public instruction, appointed by the governor, with consent of the senate, for two years; (*b*) meets county superintendents by judicial districts; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*g*) makes annual report to the legislature; (*m*) holds teachers' institutes as may be practicable.

MISSISSIPPI: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for four years; (*b*) visits different parts of the State; (*d*) construes school law; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) may require reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes reports to the legislature; (*h*) is president of State board of education.

MISSOURI: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for four years; (*b*) visits congressional districts, spending five days in each yearly; delivers lectures; (*c*) apportions school revenues; (*d*) construes school law; (*f*) receives reports from county school commissioner (superintendent); (*g*) makes annual reports to the governor or legislature; (*h*) is president of State board of education and regent of State normal school.

NEBRASKA: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) visits institutes and delivers lectures; (*c*) apportions school revenues; (*d*) construes school law; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents and State institutions; (*g*) makes reports to the governor; (*h*) is member of normal school board; (*i*) issues State certificates; (*k*) prescribes text books to be used in all schools.

NEVADA: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for four years; (*b*) visits every county at least once each year; (*c*) makes semiannual apportionment of school revenues; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes biennial reports to the governor; (*m*) holds annual State teachers' institute.

NEW HAMPSHIRE: (*a*) Superintendent of public instruction, appointed by the governor and council for two years; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from cities and towns; (*g*) makes reports to the legislature; (*m*) is expected to "guide and direct the interests of popular education."

NEW JERSEY: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the State board of education for three years; (*b*) addresses all the teachers annually at county institutes; (*c*) apportions school revenues; (*d*) decides disputes under the school law and hears appeals; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports and collects statistics; (*g*) makes reports to State board of education; (*h*) is secretary of State board of education; (*i*) the State superintendent, together with the principal of the State Normal School, issues State certificates of three grades, the first being for life: (*m*) furnishes questions used by the county boards of examiners.

NEW YORK: (*a*) Superintendent of public instruction, elected by the legislature for three years; (*b*) has power to visit all public schools and to appoint boards of examination; has general supervision of teachers' institutes; (*c*) apportions school moneys; (*d*) decides appeals in school affairs; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives statistical and financial reports from school commissioners and from various State institutions; (*g*) makes annual reports to the legislature; (*h*) is a regent of the State university and superintendent of the State normal schools; (*i*) issues temporary licenses to teachers, grants State licenses upon examination, and can revoke the same; (*l*) appoints local boards for the normal schools and conductors of institutes; (*m*) can veto the appointment of teachers for the normal schools; can annul teachers' licenses; can remove school commissioners.

NORTH CAROLINA: (*a*) Superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for four years; (*c*) signs all requisitions on the State auditor for the payment of money out of the State treasury for school purposes, and apportions State school revenues by order of the State board of education; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county school officers; (*g*) makes annual reports to the governor; (*h*) is secretary of State board of education, member of council of State, and member of board of trustees of public libraries; (*m*) causes the school laws of the

State to be published and distributed, looks after the school interests of the State at large, and recommends such improvements in the school law as may occur to him.

OHIO: (*a*) State commissioner of common schools, elected by the people for three years; (*b*) visits institutes and delivers addresses; (*c*) supervises school funds; (*d*) construes school law; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) collects school statistics; (*g*) makes annual reports to the governor; (*i*) signs certificates issued by State board of examiners; (*l*) appoints State board of examiners.

OREGON: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for four years; (*b*) has general supervision of schools and school officers; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes biennial report to the legislature; (*h*) is secretary of State board of education; (*m*) holds annual State teachers' institute at the capital and local institutes in the judicial districts.

PENNSYLVANIA: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, appointed by the governor for four years; (*c*) signs warrants on the State treasurer for payment of appropriation to the several districts; (*d*) construes the school law; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*g*) makes reports to the governor and legislature; (*l*) commissions county, city, and borough superintendents, and fills vacancies in office of county superintendent; appoints trustees for normal schools and examining committees to same.

RHODE ISLAND: (*a*) Commissioner of public schools, appointed annually by the State board of education; (*b*) visits each school district as often as possible, and delivers addresses; (*c*) apportions the annual State appropriation; (*d*) hears appeals from decisions of school officers; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from the towns; (*g*) makes annual report to State board of education; (*h*) is secretary of State board of education, and member of board of trustees of State normal school; (*k*) secures uniformity of text books as far as he can by recommendation.

SOUTH CAROLINA: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) visits counties and delivers addresses; (*c*) manages school funds and revenues; (*d*) construes school law; (*f*) receives reports from county school commissioners; (*h*) is chairman of State board of examiners, trustee of State university, and member of board of commissioners of institute for deaf and dumb; (*k*) secures uniformity in text books.

TENNESSEE: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate for two years; (*b*) makes tours of inspection; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes annual reports to the governor; (*h*) is a trustee of the University of Tennessee and of the State Agricultural College; (*i*) prescribes mode of examining and licensing teachers and their necessary qualifications; (*l*) may appoint persons in each county to visit schools.

TEXAS: (*a*) The secretary of the State board of education performs the duties of a superintendent of public instruction.

VERMONT: (*a*) State superintendent of education, appointed by the legislature for two years; (*b*) visits all parts of the State, lectures and holds teachers' institutes; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from town superintendents; (*g*) makes reports to the legislature.

VIRGINIA: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, appointed by the legislature for four years; (*b*) visits free schools of State; (*c*) apportions money appropriated by the State; (*d*) construes school law; (*e*) prepares blank forms; (*f*) receives reports from county superintendents; (*g*) makes reports to State board of education.

WEST VIRGINIA: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for four years; (*c*) signs requisitions for payment of county superintendents; (*d*) construes the school law; (*e*) prepares and distributes blank forms; (*f*) receives reports and collects statistics; (*g*) makes annual reports to the governor; (*h*) is president of the board of regents of State normal schools and member of the board of the school fund; (*i*) has power to revoke State licenses and normal diplomas; (*l*) appoints institute instructors.

WISCONSIN: (*a*) State superintendent of public instruction, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) visits counties and delivers addresses and supervises institute work; (*c*) apportions school revenues; (*d*) hears appeals; (*f*) receives reports from county and city superintendents; (*g*) makes reports to the governor; (*h*) is member of board of regents of State university and normal schools; (*i*) issues State certificates; (*k*) recommends text books.

II.—STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

Composition and duties.

INDEX.

a. Composition.
b. General supervision.
c. Relation to school property or school funds.
d. Judicial functions.
e. Power of appointment.
f. Power over text books and course of study.
g. Prepares blank forms.
h. Prepares questions for examination of teachers.
i. Examines candidates for State licenses and issues the same.
k. Receives reports.
l. Makes reports.
m. Miscellaneous.

CALIFORNIA: (*a*) State board of education, composed of the governor, State superintendent, principal of State normal school, and six county superintendents; (*b*) adopts rules and regulations for government of public schools and makes rules and establishes a standard of proficiency for the examination of teachers; (*f*) prescribes course of study and text books; (*i*) grants life licenses to teachers on recommendation of the board of examination, and may revoke the same: (*a*) also, State board of examination, composed of the State superintendent and four teachers holding State licenses appointed by him; (*i*) grants State licenses valid for two, three, four, and six years, and may revoke the same.

COLORADO: (*a*) Composed of the superintendent of public instruction, secretary of state, and attorney general; (*b*) makes rules and regulations for the government of the schools; (*i*) examines candidates for State license and issues the same.

CONNECTICUT: (*a*) Composed of the governor, lieutenant governor, and four persons appointed by the general assembly; (*b*) general supervision of school interests of the State; (*e*) appoints a secretary who acts as State superintendent; (*f*) prescribes text books; (*g*) prescribes blanks; (*l*) reports annually to the general assembly.

DELAWARE: (*a*) Composed of the secretary of state, auditor of state, and the president of Delaware College; (*d*) settles controversies between school officers; (*f*) prescribes text books; (*g*) issues blank forms for use of teachers.

FLORIDA: (*a*) Composed of the superintendent of public instruction, secretary of state, and attorney general; (*c*) has charge of school lands and funds; (*d*) hears appeals; (*e*) appoints county boards; (*m*) audits accounts of State superintendent.

GEORGIA: (*a*) Composed of the governor, attorney general, comptroller general, secretary of state, and State school commissioner; (*c*) holds property, can sue and be sued; (*d*) hears appeals from the State school commissioner.

INDIANA: (*a*) Composed of the governor, State superintendent, president of State university, president of Purdue University, president of State Normal School, and superintendents of the three largest cities of the State; (*e*) appoints trustees for the State university and visitors to the State Normal School; (*h*) prepares questions for examination of teachers; (*i*) examines candidates for State license and issues certificates to them; (*m*) commissions high schools to send pupils to the State university and issues instructions to county superintendents.

KANSAS: (*a*) Composed of the superintendent of public instruction, chancellor of State university, principal of State normal school, and president of State Agricultural

College; (*i*) examines candidates for State license, and issues the same; issues certificates to conductors of normal institutes.

Kentucky: (*a*) State board of education, composed of the superintendent of public instruction, secretary of state, attorney general, and two professional educators; (*b*) makes rules and regulations for the government of the schools; (*f*) recommends text books and course of study: (*a*) also, State board of examiners, composed of State superintendent and two teachers appointed by him; (*i*) examines candidates and issues State licenses.

Louisiana: (*a*) Composed of the State superintendent and six division superintendents; (*b*) makes rules and regulations for the government of the schools; (*e*) appoints parish, city, town, and district directors; (*f*) prescribes course of study and recommends uniform series of text books; (*m*) enforces the law admitting children into the schools without regard to race, color, or previous condition.

Maryland: (*a*) Composed of the governor, principal of State Normal School, and four persons appointed by the governor; (*b*) general supervision; (*d*) construes law and hears appeals; (*e*) appoints superintendent of public instruction; (*g*) prepares blank forms; (*i*) issues State licenses; (*k*) receives reports; (*l*) publishes an annual report; (*m*) examines county examiners.

Massachusetts: (*a*) Composed of the governor, lieutenant governor, and eight persons appointed by the governor, one retiring each year; (*b*) has care and management of the school system, subject to enactments of the legislature; (*l*) makes annual reports to the legislature.

Michigan: (*a*) Composed of the superintendent of public instruction and of three members elected by the people; (*h*) prepares questions for examination of teachers; (*i*) issues State licenses; (*m*) controls the State Normal School.

Mississippi: (*a*) Composed of the State superintendent, secretary of state, and attorney general; (*d*) hears appeals; (*e*) appoints and suspends county superintendents; (*m*) audits claims against the school funds.

Missouri: (*a*) Composed of the governor, State superintendent, secretary of state, and attorney general; (*c*) invests and has care of the State school funds.

Nevada: (*a*) Composed of the governor, superintendent of public instruction, and surveyor general; (*b*) devises plans for the improvement of the schools, its powers being chiefly advisory; (*c*) supervises the apportionment of school revenue made by the State superintendent; (*f*) prescribes text books; (*i*) issues State certificates.

New Jersey: (*a*) Composed of the governor, secretary of state, attorney general, comptroller, president of senate, speaker of assembly, treasurer and trustees of State Normal School; (*b*) general supervision; prescribes rules and regulations for carrying the school law into effect; (*c*) has charge of the permanent State investments for school purposes; (*d*) decides appeals from decisions of the State superintendent; (*e*) appoints the State superintendent and county superintendents; (*k*) receives reports from the State superintendent; (*l*) makes annual report to the legislature; (*m*) prescribes rules for holding teachers' institutes.

North Carolina: (*a*) Composed of the governor, lieutenant governor, secretary, treasurer, and auditor of state, and superintendent of public instruction; (*b*) makes rules and regulations for the government of the schools; (*c*) holds title to the swamp lands of the State, and applies proceeds of sale of same to school purposes; has charge of the permanent school fund; (*e*) appoints boards of directors and teachers for the State normal schools; (*f*) recommends text books; (*m*) organizes and controls the State normal schools.

Oregon: (*a*) Composed of the governor, secretary of state, and State superintendent; (*b*) makes general rules and regulations for the government of the schools; (*f*) prescribes text books and course of study; (*i*) examines and licenses teachers, and issues State and life licenses.

Rhode Island: (*a*) Composed of the governor, lieutenant governor, and six persons elected by the general assembly; (*b*) has general supervision of school affairs;

(*d*) has power to remit fines and penalties under the school law; (*e*) appoints the commissioner of public schools, who acts as secretary to the board; (*i*) examines teachers and grants licenses; (*k*) receives annual reports from the commissioner; (*l*) makes annual reports to the general assembly; (*m*) members are trustees of the State Normal School.

SOUTH CAROLINA: (*a*) Composed of the State superintendent and four members appointed by the governor; (*f*) prescribes text books and course of study; (*i*) issues State licenses.

TENNESSEE: (*a*) Composed of the governor and six persons appointed by him; (*b*) not charged with any duties in connection with the public schools; (*m*) has charge and control of the State Normal College and makes arrangements for opening normal schools.

TEXAS: (*a*) Composed of the governor, comptroller, and secretary of state; (*b*) has general supervision of schools; deals directly with the teachers and local school officers; (*e*) may appoint a secretary, if necessary, who shall act as State superintendent.

VIRGINIA: (*a*) Composed of the governor, superintendent of public instruction, and attorney general; (*c*) controls the State school fund; (*d*) decides appeals from the State superintendent; (*f*) secures uniformity in text books; (*l*) appoints and removes city and county superintendents and district trustees.

III.—CHIEF COUNTY OFFICER.

His appointment, duties, &c.

INDEX.

a. Title, mode of appointment, and term.
b. Examination and licensing of teachers.
c. Visitation, institutes.
d. Reports.
e. Judicial functions.
f. Relations to county board.
g. Relations to school moneys.
m. Miscellaneous.

ALABAMA: (*a*) County superintendent, appointed by the State superintendent for two years; (*c*) visits schools and holds institutes; (*d*) makes annual report to State superintendent; (*f*) member of county board of examiners; (*g*) disburses school revenue for county and reports same with vouchers to State superintendent.

ARKANSAS: (*a*) County examiner, appointed by the county court for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; may revoke licenses; (*c*) holds county institutes; (*d*) receives reports from directors and makes annual reports to the State superintendent.

CALIFORNIA: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) issues temporary certificates to teachers; (*c*) visits each school once a year; presides over county institutes; (*d*) makes reports to the State superintendent; (*f*) chairman of county board of examination, if he holds a first grade license; (*g*) apportions school money quarterly; (*m*) appoints trustees, in case of failure to elect.

COLORADO: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*c*) visits all schools once each quarter; (*d*) makes reports to the State superintendent and to the county commissioners; (*g*) apportions school moneys quarterly; (*m*) ascertains boundaries of districts, examines accounts of same, and fills vacancies in district boards.

DELAWARE: (*a*) County superintendent, appointed annually by the governor; (*c*) visits schools; (*d*) makes reports to the general assembly; (*m*) supplies blank forms and collects information.

FLORIDA: (*a*) County superintendent, appointed by the governor for two years; (*b*) may examine and license teachers, if authorized by county board of public instruction; (*c*) visits and inspects schools; (*d*) makes annual reports to the State superintendent; (*e*) decides disputed questions, and refers same to the board; (*f*) secretary and agent of county board of public instruction.

GEORGIA: (*a*) County school commissioner, elected by county board of education for four years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers, and may revoke licenses; (*c*) visits schools twice yearly; (*d*) makes annual reports to State school commissioner and to grand jury of county; (*f*) is secretary of the county board; (*g*) disburses school revenue on order of county board.

ILLINOIS: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for four years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*c*) visits schools and holds institutes; (*d*) makes reports to the State superintendent and to the county board; (*g*) disburses school revenue; (*m*) has charge of school land and county school fund.

INDIANA: (*a*) County superintendent, appointed by township trustees for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers, and may revoke licenses; (*c*) visits and inspects schools and holds institutes; (*d*) makes reports to State superintendent; (*e*) decides appeals from decisions of trustees; (*f*) president of county board.

IOWA: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers, and may revoke licenses; (*c*) visits schools and holds institutes; (*d*) makes reports to State superintendent; (*e*) decides appeals from decisions of directors.

KANSAS: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*c*) holds annually a county normal institute; (*d*) receives reports from school district clerks, and makes annual reports to the State superintendent and monthly reports of institute funds to the county treasurer; (*e*) decides appeals from decisions of district boards; (*f*) is member of county examining committee; (*g*) apportions State and county funds; (*m*) appoints appraisers of school lands and fills vacancies in district boards.

KENTUCKY: (*a*) County commissioner, appointed by the county judge and justices of the peace for two years; (*c*) visits all schools at least once a year; (*d*) makes reports to the State superintendent; (*e*) decides disputes regarding school affairs; (*f*) member of county board of examiners; (*m*) lays off school districts, provides teachers with regulations, &c., and may remove teachers for not enforcing the same.

MARYLAND: (*a*) County examiner, appointed by the county school board for two years; (*b*) examines teachers; (*c*) visits and inspects schools and holds institutes; (*f*) is secretary of county school board.

MINNESOTA: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; may revoke licenses; (*c*) visits schools; (*d*) makes quarterly reports to county auditor and annual reports to State superintendent; (*m*) distributes blank forms.

MISSISSIPPI: (*a*) County superintendent, appointed by State board of education for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers, and may revoke licenses; (*c*) visits schools; (*d*) makes annual reports to State superintendent and the board of supervisors; (*f*) superintendent of city schools of his county; (*m*) advises trustees as to their duties.

MISSOURI: (*a*) County school commissioner, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers, and may revoke licenses; (*d*) makes statistical reports to State superintendent; (*m*) supplies districts with copies of the school law and blank forms.

NEBRASKA: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*c*) visits schools, delivers lectures, and holds institutes; (*g*) apportions county school moneys; (*m*) forms new districts; appoints school officers and locates school-houses where districts fail to do so.

NEVADA: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*c*) visits each school yearly and holds institutes; (*d*) makes annual reports to the State superintendent; (*f*) is chairman of county board of examiners; (*g*) apportions school moneys quarterly; (*m*) appoints trustees, in case of failure to elect; issues warrants on county treasurer for payment of teachers.

NEW JERSEY: (*a*) County superintendent, appointed by State board of education for three years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*c*) visits schools; (*d*) makes reports to the State superintendent; (*e*) decides disputes under the school law; (*g*) apportions school money to townships and districts.

NEW YORK: (*a*) From one to four school commissioners in each county, elected by the people every three years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers, and can revoke licenses; (*c*) visits schools and attends institutes; (*d*) makes annual reports to State superintendent; (*e*) decides disputed questions in his district; (*g*) apportions school moneys.

NORTH CAROLINA: (*a*) County examiner, appointed by the county board for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*d*) makes annual reports to the State superintendent and to the county board; (*m*) may recommend the revocation of licenses to the county board.

OREGON: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers: (*c*) visits schools; (*d*) makes annual reports to the State superintendent; (*g*) apportions school moneys; (*m*) has charge of school lands; divides county into school districts.

PENNSYLVANIA: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the school directors for three years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*c*) visits schools and holds institutes; (*d*) makes annual reports to the State superintendent; (*m*) must hold a diploma from a college or normal school, or a certificate from the State superintendent.

SOUTH CAROLINA: (*a*) County school commissioner, elected by the people for two years; (*c*) visits and inspects schools; (*d*) makes reports to the State superintendent; (*f*) is chairman of the county board of examiners; (*g*) apportions county school revenue.

TENNESSEE: (*a*) County superintendent, appointed by the county court for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*c*) visits schools; (*d*) makes annual reports to the State superintendent; (*g*) approves warrants drawn by directors for school moneys; (*m*) secures uniformity in text books.

VERMONT: (*a*) County examiner, chosen by town superintendents for one year; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers.

VIRGINIA: (*a*) County superintendent, appointed by State board of education for four years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*c*) visits and inspects schools; (*e*) decides appeals and disputes; (*f*) is president of county school board; (*g*) apportions school revenues in his county.

WEST VIRGINIA: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*c*) assists at county institutes; (*d*) makes annual reports to the State superintendent; (*f*) is member of county board of examiners; (*g*) apportions school revenues; (*m*) distributes blank forms.

WISCONSIN: (*a*) County superintendent, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers, and may revoke licenses; (*c*) visits and inspects schools and holds institutes; (*d*) makes reports to the State superintendent.

IV.—COUNTY BOARDS.

Their composition and duties.

INDEX.

a. Title and composition.
b. Examination, licensing, and employment of teachers.
c. Power to regulate schools, course of study, and text books.
d. Power to locate and build school houses.
e. Relation to school taxes, &c.
f. Make reports.
m. Miscellaneous.

CALIFORNIA: (*a*) Composed of county superintendent and from three to five teachers holding first grade certificates appointed by him; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers.

FLORIDA: (*a*) County board of public instruction, appointed by State board for four years; county superintendent is secretary; (*b*) employs teachers on recommendation of trustees; (*c*) grades schools and makes rules and regulations; (*d*) locates and builds school-houses; (*e*) orders levy of local taxes, receives and pays out school money; (*m*) provides separate schools for the different races.

GEORGIA: (*a*) County board of education, five persons, chosen by the grand jury; county superintendent is secretary; (*b*) licenses and employs teachers; (*c*) prescribes text books; (*d*) locates schools and lays off subdistricts; (*m*) chooses county school commissioner.

INDIANA: (*a*) County board of education, composed of county superintendent and the township trustees and the presidents of the city and town school boards; (*c*) adopts text books; (*m*) meets semiannually and considers the general wants and needs of the schools.

KANSAS: (*a*) County board of examiners, composed of the county superintendent and two persons appointed by the county commissioners; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers, and may revoke licenses.

KENTUCKY: (*a*) County board of examiners, composed of the county commissioner and two persons selected by him; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*c*) selects a uniform series of text books.

LOUISIANA: (*a*) Parish board of school directors, five or nine members, appointed by State board of education for four years; (*b*) examines by committee, licenses and employs teachers, and may dismiss them for cause; (*c*) prescribes rules for the government of schools and dismisses pupils for cause; (*d*) locates and builds school-houses, and provides furniture, apparatus, &c.; (*e*) levies parish school tax and apportions school revenues; (*m*) divides the parish into districts; appoints visiting trustees.

MARYLAND: (*a*) Board of county school commissioners, appointed by the judge of the circuit court for two years; (*b*) appoints the county superintendent and confirms the appointment of teachers; (*c*) selects and purchases uniform text books; (*d*) divides the county into districts and builds and repairs school-houses; (*e*) fixes amount of county tax, subject to approval of county commissioners; (*f*) makes yearly report to State board.

MISSISSIPPI: (*a*) County board of school directors, elected by the parents or guardians of the school children of the county; (*m*) governs the schools of the county, each county being a school district.

NEVADA: (*a*) County board of examination, composed of the county superintendent and two persons appointed by him; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers.

NEW JERSEY: (*a*) County board of examiners, composed of the county superintendent and two teachers selected by him: (*b*) examines and licenses teachers.

NORTH CAROLINA: (*a*) County board of education, composed of the five members of the board of county commissioners and the register of deeds; (*c*) has supervision of the schools of the county; (*e*) levies local school taxes; (*f*) makes semiannual reports to the superintendent of public instruction; (*m*) divides county into districts, and appoints committeemen for same; appoints county examiner.

OHIO: (*a*) County board of examiners, three members, appointed by the probate judge, one member being appointed each year; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers.

SOUTH CAROLINA: (*a*) County board of examiners, composed of the county commissioner and two persons appointed by the State board for two years; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers.

TEXAS: (*a*) County board of examiners appointed annually by the county judge; (*b*) examines teachers and recommends for licenses to the county judge.

VIRGINIA: (*a*) County school board, composed of all the district trustees, with the county superintendent as president; (*e*) estimates the amount of money needed for school purposes; (*m*) examines yearly the records and vouchers of the district boards.

WEST VIRGINIA: (*a*) County board of examiners, composed of the county superintendent and two teachers chosen by presidents of the district boards; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers.

V.—TOWNSHIP AND DISTRICT OFFICERS.[1]

Their duties, &c.

INDEX.

- *a.* Title, appointment, and term.
- *b.* Employment of teachers.
- *c.* Power to regulate schools.
- *d.* Visitation of schools.
- *e.* Relation to school property.
- *f.* Relation to school money.
- *g.* Make reports.
- *m.* Miscellaneous.

ALABAMA: (*a*) Township superintendents, appointed by the county superintendent; (*b*) employ and contract with teachers; (*d*) visit schools of their townships; (*m*) certify to correctness of teachers' reports.

ARKANSAS: (*a*) Board of district school directors, three members, elected by the people for three years; (*b*) employs and contracts with teachers; (*c*) takes charge of the school affairs of the district; (*d*) visits schools; (*g*) makes reports to the county examiner.

CALIFORNIA: (*a*) Board of district school trustees, three members, elected by the people, one each year for three years; each county, city, or incorporated town is a district; (*b*) employs and contracts with teachers; (*c*) enforces use of text books and course of study prescribed by State board; suspends and expels pupils; (*d*) visits each school once each term; (*e*) controls school property; (*f*) receives and disburses school money; (*g*) makes reports to county and State superintendents; (*m*) furnishes books to indigent children; appoints school census marshals.

COLORADO: (*a*) District board of directors, three or six members, elected, one-third yearly, for three years; (*b*) employs teachers; (*e*) has control of school property, buys and sells the same, fixes sites, and builds school-houses; (*f*) levies local school taxes on vote of people.

CONNECTICUT: (*a*) District committee, three members; (*b*) employs teachers; (*m*) takes charge of the school affairs of the district.

DELAWARE: (*a*) District committee, three members, elected, one yearly, for three years; (*b*) employs and contracts with teachers; (*c*) sees that schools are kept open as long as the funds will permit; (*e*) selects sites and builds school-houses; (*f*) assesses and levies the annual school tax.

FLORIDA: (*a*) District school trustees, appointed for four years by the county board of education; (*b*) recommend teachers to the county board; (*e*) have charge of school property.

GEORGIA: (*a*) Three school trustees for each subdistrict, appointed by the county board of education; (*b*) recommend teachers to county board; (*d*) supervise schools; (*f*) make annual reports to county board.

ILLINOIS: (*a*) Three township trustees, elected by the people for three years; (*e*) hold title of school property; (*f*) hold and distribute funds of districts and money received from county superintendent; (*g*) make reports to county superintendent: also, (*a*) three school directors in each district, elected by the people for three years; (*b*) hire teachers; (*c*) prescribe course of study; (*e*) build school-houses; (*f*) levy local school taxes and disburse funds by order on trustees.

INDIANA: (*a*) One township trustee elected by the people for two years; (*b*) employs teachers; (*c*) establishes graded schools; (*e*) builds school-houses and has care of school property; (*f*) orders levy of local school taxes and pays out and accounts for school moneys; (*g*) makes reports to county commissioners and county superintendent; (*m*) takes school census.

IOWA: (*a*) Township board of directors, three or more, elected by the people; (*b*) employs teachers, and may dismiss them; (*c*) prescribes course of study and text books; can suspend or expel pupils; (*d*) visits schools; (*e*) locates school-houses, and can divide districts; (*f*) levies taxes.

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[1] District means a part of a town or township, unless otherwise stated.

KANSAS: (*a*) District board, three members, elected by the people for three years; (*b*) employs and contracts with teachers; may dismiss them for cause; (*c*) regulates schools, suspends pupils, and requires uniformity in text books; (*d*) visits school once each term; (*e*) has care of school property; (*f*) receives and disburses school money; (*g*) makes reports to county superintendent.

KENTUCKY: (*a*) District trustee, elected by votes of the district for one year; district must not be more than four miles square; (*b*) employs, contracts with, and removes teachers; (*c*) enforces regulations for government of schools; (*d*) visits schools once a month; (*e*) holds, buys, and sells school property, and builds or provides school-houses; (*f*) levies and collects local school taxes; (*g*) makes reports.

LOUISIANA: (*a*) Auxiliary visiting trustees, appointed for the districts by the parish board; (*d*) visit the schools; (*g*) make quarterly reports to the parish board.

MAINE: (*a*) Town school committees or supervisors; (*b*) examine and license teachers, and may dismiss teachers; (*c*) grade schools, prescribe course of study and text books; (*d*) inspect schools.

MARYLAND: (*a*) Three trustees for each district, appointed by the county board; (*b*) employ teachers; (*c*) have power to expel pupils; (*e*) take care of school property.

MASSACHUSETTS: (*a*) Town school committee, three persons; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers; (*c*) superintends the public schools; (*d*) visits schools; (*f*) apportions school money; (*g*) makes report to town.

MICHIGAN: (*a*) District board, three or six members, elected one-third yearly for three years; (*b*) employs teachers; (*c*) prescribes course of study and text books; (*e*) builds school-houses; (*f*) manages school funds; determines yearly tax.

MINNESOTA: (*a*) District board of trustees, three members; district may include a township; (*b*) employs and contracts with teachers; (*c*) may expel pupils for cause; (*e*) purchases sites and provides houses when ordered by school meetings; (*f*) levies taxes if district neglects to do so.

MISSISSIPPI: (*a*) Local trustees, three for each school, elected yearly by patrons of school; (*b*) select teachers; (*c*) arbitrate between teachers and pupils; (*d*) visit schools monthly; (*e*) protect school property.

MISSOURI: (*a*) District board, three or six members, elected one-third yearly for three years; (*b*) employs teachers; (*c*) makes rules for organization, grading, and government of schools, and may expel pupils; (*d*) visits schools; (*e*) has custody of school property; (*f*) levies district school tax; (*m*) takes school census.

NEBRASKA: (*a*) District (township?) board, three or six members, elected for three years; (*b*) employs teachers (?); (*c*) grades schools and prescribes course of study; (*e*) has custody of school property, and purchases or leases sites, and builds school-houses; (*f*) manages school funds and reports taxes.

NEVADA: (*a*) District board of school trustees, three or five members, elected by the people for four years; (*b*) district equivalent to township; employs, contracts with, and may dismiss teachers; (*e*) locates and builds or provides school-houses, when so ordered by vote of the district; (*f*) levies local school taxes on vote of the people; takes enumeration of school children.

NEW HAMPSHIRE: (*a*) Town school committee, three members, elected by the people or appointed by selectmen for one year; (*c*) regulates schools, prescribes rules, course of study, and text books; (*d*) visits schools; (*g*) makes annual reports to the superintendent of public instruction: also, (*a*) district prudential committee, one person elected by the people for one year; (*b*) employs teachers; (*e*) has charge of school property.

NEW JERSEY: (*a*) Three school trustees, elected by districts for three years; women eligible; (*b*) employ teachers; (*e*) erect and repair school-houses; (*f*) preserve financial records.

NEW YORK: (*a*) One or three district school trustees, elected annually by the people; (*b*) employ and contract with teachers; (*c*) regulate schools; prescribe course of study; may expel pupils; (*d*) visit schools; (*e*) build or provide school-houses; (*f*) levy local school taxes; (*g*) make annual report to school commissioners; (*m*) take school census; may be teachers themselves, and cannot employ near relatives except by vote of the district.

NORTH CAROLINA: (*a*) District school committee, three members, appointed by the county board for three years; (*b*) employs teachers; (*c*) supervises schools, under direction of the county board; (*d*) visits schools and corrects abuses; (*e*) holds and controls school property, selects sites, and builds school-houses; (*f*) disburses school moneys by orders on the county treasurer; (*g*) makes reports to the county board; (*m*) examines and approves reports of teachers.

OHIO: (*a*) District board of education, composed of a clerk and two directors; the clerks of all the districts of a township form, with the township clerk, a township board; (*b*) employs teachers; (*c*) prescribes course of study and text books; (*e*) builds and repairs school-houses; (*f*) levies local school taxes.

OREGON: (*a*) Three district directors, elected one each year for three years; district a division of a county; (*b*) employ and contract with teachers; (*c*) aid teachers in discipline of the schools and secure uniformity in text books; (*d*) visit schools twice each term; (*e*) purchase sites and build and provide school-houses; (*f*) levy district school tax.

PENNSYLVANIA: (*a*) District board of school directors elected for three years; (*b*) employs teachers; (*c*) grades schools and prescribes course of study and text books; (*d*) visits schools; (*e*) establishes schools and builds houses; (*f*) levies taxes for schools and buildings; (*g*) publishes financial statement; (*m*) elects county superintendent.

RHODE ISLAND: (*a*) Town school committee, consisting of superintendent of schools and three or more members appointed by town, one-third yearly; also, one or three district trustees, elected annually; (*f*) the trustees hire teachers, subject to approval of the school committee; (*c*) rules and regulations for the management of schools made by the committee; length and times of school terms are fixed by the trustees; (*d*) visitation by school superintendent; (*f*) trustees make out tax bills for the district; (*g*) trustees make reports to the committee.

SOUTH CAROLINA: (*a*) Board of school district trustees, three members, appointed by county board of examiners; (*b*) employs teachers, and may remove them for cause; (*c*) can suspend or expel pupils; (*d*) visits schools.

TENNESSEE: (*a*) Three district directors elected, one annually for three years; district subdivision of county; (*b*) employ and may dismiss teachers; (*c*) keep separate schools for white and colored children; may dismiss pupils; enforce rules and regulations; (*d*) visit schools; (*e*) control and manage school property; (*f*) disburse school moneys; (*g*) make annual reports to the county superintendent.

TEXAS: (*a*) Three community trustees appointed by the county judge on request of persons forming a school community; (*b*) employ teachers; (*c*) have the general control and management of the schools; (*m*) approve the selection of text books made by teachers.[1]

VERMONT: (*a*) Town superintendents, elected annually by the people; (*b*) license teachers: also, (*a*) District prudential committee, one person elected by the people; (*b*) employs teachers; (*e*) has care of school property.

VIRGINIA: (*a*) District school board; district corresponds to township; (*b*) employs teachers, and may dismiss them; (*c*) may suspend or expel pupils; (*d*) visits schools; (*e*) controls and manages school property; (*f*) estimates funds necessary for schools.

WEST VIRGINIA: (*a*) District (township) board of education, five members, elected by the people for two years; (*b*) employs and contracts with teachers; (*c*) regulates schools as to location, number, and length of term; (*d*) has general supervision of schools; (*e*) holds and controls school property; (*f*) disburses school money by orders upon the sheriff, and levies district taxes; (*m*) may appoint trustees for subdistricts.

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[1] The school system of Texas seems to be a purely permissive one.

WISCONSIN: (*a*) School district board, three members, elected one yearly for three years; (*b*) employs teachers; (*c*) regulates schools, suspends and expels pupils, prescribes text books; (*e*) has charge of school property, builds houses, &c.; (*f*) may determine amount of school taxes, if district meeting fails to do so.

NOTE.—In most States, cities and large towns have independent jurisdiction over their schools, and their officers perform the functions usually performed by township and district officers.

VI.—EXAMINATION, APPOINTMENT, AND SUPERVISION OF TEACHERS.

INDEX.

a. By whom examined and licensed.
b. By whom selected and appointed.
c. By whom supervised.

ALABAMA: (*a*) County board of examiners, consisting of county superintendent and two teachers selected by him; (*b*) township superintendents; (*c*) township superintendents, once or twice yearly.

ARKANSAS: (*a*) County examiner; State license by the State superintendent; (*b*) district board of school directors; (*c*) school directors.

CALIFORNIA: (*a*) County or city board of examination; State license by the State board of education; (*b*) district board of trustees; (*c*) county superintendent and district trustees.

COLORADO: (*a*) County superintendent; State license by the State board of education; (*b*) district board of directors; (*c*) county superintendent.

CONNECTICUT: (*a*) Board of school visitors, six or nine persons, elected, one-third yearly; (*b*) school district committee, not more than three persons, chosen annually; (*c*) acting visitors, twice each term; they are members of board of school visitors.

DELAWARE: (*a*) State superintendent; (*b*) district committee; (*c*) State and county superintendent.

FLORIDA: (*a*) License granted by county board of public instruction to persons examined by county superintendent and to graduates of department of teaching; State license by State superintendent; (*b*) county board of public instruction, on recommendation of the school trustees; (*c*) county superintendent, every three months.

GEORGIA: (*a*) Examined by county school commissioner (superintendent); license granted by county board of education; (*b*) county board of education; (*c*) county school commissioner, twice yearly.

ILLINOIS: (*a*) County superintendent; State license by State superintendent; (*b*) district school directors; (*c*) county superintendent, yearly, if so directed by county board.

INDIANA: (*a*) County superintendent; State license by State board of education; (*b*) township trustees; (*c*) county superintendent, once yearly.

IOWA: (*a*) County superintendent; (*b*) district board of directors; (cities are independent districts; the township district board consists of one subdirector from each subdistrict; subdirectors have charge of their own schools under direction of the board); (*c*) county superintendent, once each term, giving half a day at each visit.

KANSAS: (*a*) County board of education; State license by State board of education; (*b*) school district board; (*c*) county superintendent, occasionally.

KENTUCKY: (*a*) County board of examiners; State license by State board; (*b*) district trustee; (*c*) district trustee.

LOUISIANA: (*a*) Examining committee, appointed by parish board; (*b*) parish board; (*c*) visiting trustees.

MAINE: (*a*) Superintending school committee of towns; (*b*) superintending school committee; (*c*) superintending school committee.

MARYLAND: (*a*) County examiner or State Normal School; State license by the State board of education; (*b*) district trustees, subject to confirmation by county school board; (*c*) county examiner, twice yearly.

MASSACHUSETTS: (*a*) Town school committee; (*b*) town school committee; some towns elect prudential committees, consisting of one person from each district; (*c*) town school committee.

MICHIGAN: (*a*) Township superintendent; State license by State board of education; (*b*) school district board; (*c*) township superintendents.

MINNESOTA: (*a*) County superintendent; (*b*) district trustees; (*c*) county superintendent.

MISSISSIPPI: (*a*) County superintendent; (*b*) local trustees, or, in their default, county superintendent; (*c*) local trustees, once yearly.

MISSOURI: (*a*) County school commissioner; (*b*) district directors, three in number, one elected yearly for three years; (*c*) county school commissioner.

NEBRASKA: (*a*) County superintendent; State license by State superintendent; (*b*) district board; county superintendent divides county into districts; (*c*) county superintendent.

NEVADA: (*a*) County board of examination; (*b*) district trustees; (*c*) county superintendent.

NEW HAMPSHIRE: (*a*) Town school committees and boards of education; (*b*) district prudential committees and boards of education; (*c*) town school committees, boards of education, and superintendents.

NEW JERSEY: (*a*) County superintendent; (*b*) district trustees; each city a district; country districts, enough territory for one school; (*c*) county superintendent, twice yearly.

NEW YORK: (*a*) School commissioners; State license by State superintendent; (*b*) district trustees; (*c*) school commissioners, once or twice a year.

NORTH CAROLINA: (*a*) County examiner; (*b*) district school committee; (*c*) school committee.

OHIO: (*a*) County board of examiners; State license by State board of examiners; (*b*) directors of subdistrict; (*c*) no supervision.

OREGON: (*a*) County superintendent; (*b*) district directors (?); (*c*) county superintendent.

PENNSYLVANIA: (*a*) County superintendent; State license by State superintendent; (*b*) district board of school directors; every township, borough, and city a district; (*c*) county superintendent.

RHODE ISLAND: (*a*) Town school committee; (*b*) district trustees, subject to approval of the committee; (*c*) school committee.

SOUTH CAROLINA: (*a*) County board of examiners; State license by State board of education; (*b*) board of district trustees; (*c*) county school commissioner.

TENNESSEE: (*a*) County superintendent; (*b*) district directors; (*c*) county superintendent.

TEXAS: (*a*) County board of examiners; (*b*) community trustees; (*c*) community trustees (?).

VERMONT: (*a*) County examiners, who are appointed by the town superintendents at yearly meetings; (*b*) district prudential committee; (*c*) town superintendents, once yearly.

VIRGINIA: (*a*) County superintendent; (*b*) district school board; district corresponds to township; (*c*) county superintendent.

WEST VIRGINIA: (*a*) County board of examiners; (*b*) district board of education; (*c*) district board and subdistrict trustees.

WISCONSIN: (*a*) County superintendent; State license by State superintendent and State board of education; (*b*) district board; (*c*) county superintendent.

NOTE.—In most States diplomas of State normal schools are equivalent to State licenses.

VII.—DURATION OF SCHOOLS.

Attendance thereon and course of study.

INDEX.

a. How long local authorities are compelled to maintain schools.

b. Minimum course of study prescribed.

c. Attendance.

Alabama: (*a*) Twelve weeks.

California: (*a*) Six months to secure appropriation; (*b*) reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, history of the United States, physiology, natural history, drawing, and music; (*c*) compulsory, but law not enforced.

Colorado: (*a*) Three months; (*b*) orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history of the United States, physiology, and the elements of natural science.

Connecticut: (*a*) Thirty weeks in districts of twenty-four or more school children; twenty-four weeks in lesser districts; (*c*) children from eight to fourteen must attend three months each year.

Delaware: (*a*) As long as funds hold out.

Florida: (*a*) Three months yearly, or forfeit appropriation.

Georgia: (*a*) Three months yearly, or forfeit appropriation; (*b*) State and county limited to elementary English branches.

Illinois: (*a*) Six months yearly; (*b*) orthography, reading, penmanship, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, history of the United States.

Indiana: (*a*) No minimum; (*b*) orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, physiology, and history of the United States.

Iowa: (*a*) Twenty-four weeks; (*b*) common branches.

Kansas: (*a*) Three months, or forfeit appropriation; (*b*) orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, arithmetic, and other English branches in the discretion of the district board; (*c*) compulsory for all between eight and fourteen who live within two miles of a school-house.

Maine: (*c*) Children from six to fifteen must attend twelve weeks.

Maryland: (*a*) Ten months yearly in at least one school in each district.

Massachusetts: (*c*) Children between eight and twelve must attend twenty weeks each year.

Michigan: (*a*) Nine months in districts of eight hundred children, five months in districts of thirty, and three months in lesser districts.

Minnesota: (*a*) Three months each year, or forfeit appropriation.

Mississippi: (*a*) Five months, provided local, State, and county tax does not amount to more than $15 on $1,000.

Missouri: (*a*) Generally four months; not less than thirty nor more than forty weeks in cities, towns, and villages.

Nebraska: (*a*) In order to draw public money, three months, if less than seventy-five pupils; six months, if less than two hundred pupils; nine months, if more than two hundred pupils.

Nevada: (*a*) Six months each year, in order to obtain public money; (*b*) spelling, reading, grammar, arithmetic, geography, and physiology; (*c*) children between eight and fourteen years must attend sixteen weeks.

New Hampshire: (*a*) Optional; (*c*) all children between eight and fourteen must attend twelve weeks.

New Jersey: (*a*) Nine months yearly; (*c*) all children between eight and fourteen must attend twelve weeks consecutively each year.

New York: (*a*) Twenty-eight weeks each year, or forfeit public money; (*b*) optional with the trustees.

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North Carolina: (*a*) Four months; (*b*) orthography, reading, penmanship, arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history of the United States.

Ohio: (*a*) Legal school year is twenty-four weeks.

Oregon: (*a*) Legal school year is sixty days; (*b*) orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history of the United States.

Pennsylvania: (*a*) Not less than five months.

Rhode Island: (*a*) Twenty-four weeks.

Tennessee: (*a*) Five months; (*b*) orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, geology of Tennessee, history of the United States, elements of agriculture.

Vermont: (*a*) Towns must have twenty weeks, or forfeit school money; (*b*) reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, grammar, history of the United States, and good behavior; (*c*) children from eight to fourteen must attend three months.

Virginia: (*a*) Five months yearly; (*b*) reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, and grammar.

West Virginia: (*a*) Four months; (*b*) orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, history, and geography.

Wisconsin: (*a*) Five months yearly, or forfeit share of school money; (*b*) common branches, including history of United States; (*c*) compulsory for all between seven and fifteen.

VIII.—FINANCIAL SYSTEMS.

INDEX.

a. How State school revenue is produced.
b. How State school revenue is used.
c. What per cent. of teachers' salaries the State school revenue furnishes.
d. How local taxes are levied.

Alabama: (*a*) Legislative appropriation and statutory poll tax; (*b*) 96 per cent. must be applied to tuition, unless otherwise ordered by a two-thirds vote of the legislature; (*c*) 82 per cent.; (*d*) county tax by county authorities.

Arkansas: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*d*) county tax by county court.

California: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*c*) 98 per cent.; (*d*) county tax by county authorities; district tax by local vote.

Colorado: (*a*) No State tax; (*d*) county tax by county commissioners; district tax by district board on vote of the people.

Connecticut: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*c*) 43 per cent.; (*d*) town and district taxes by vote of the people.

Delaware: (*a*) Legislative appropriation; (*c*) 25 per cent.; (*d*) district tax by district committee.

Florida: (*a*) Tax periodically fixed by statute; (*b*) for general school expenses; (*c*) 35 per cent.; (*d*) county tax by county board of public instruction.

Georgia: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*d*) county tax by a two-thirds vote of the electors.

Illinois: (*a*) Tax periodically fixed by statute; (*b*) for general school expenses; (*c*) 27 per cent.; (*d*) district tax by district directors; a township tax for high school; a county tax for county normal school.

Indiana: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*c*) 76 per cent.; (*d*) township tax by township trustees.

Iowa: (*a*) No State tax; interest on permanent fund; (*d*) county tax by board of supervisors, township and district tax by electors and by board of directors.

Kansas: (*a*) No State tax; (*d*) district tax by vote of electors.

Kentucky: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*d*) county tax by vote of the people, district tax by same

Louisiana: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund. (*c*) 86 per cent.; (*d*) parish tax by order of parish board.

MAINE: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) for general school expenses; (*c*) 42 per cent.; (*d*) town tax by town assessors.

MARYLAND: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) for general school expenses; (*c*) 75 per cent.; (*d*) county tax by county commissioners.

MASSACHUSETTS: (*a*) Legislative appropriations, and interest on permanent fund; (*c*) 39 per cent.; (*d*) town tax.

MICHIGAN: (*a*) No State tax; interest on permanent fund; (*d*) township tax by township supervisor, district tax by district board.

MINNESOTA: (*a*) No State tax; (*d*) district tax by vote of people, in independent districts by trustees.

MISSISSIPPI: (*a*) Liquor licenses, land redemptions, fines, and forfeitures; (*b*) exclusively for tuition and pay of county superintendents; (*d*) county tax by board of supervisors.

MISSOURI: (*a*) No State tax; interest on permanent fund; (*d*) district tax by board of district directors.

NEBRASKA: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*c*) 52 per cent.; (*d*) district tax by vote of the people.

NEVADA: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statuts, fines and escheats, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*c*) 78 per cent.; (*d*) county tax by county commissioners, district tax by vote of electors.

NEW HAMPSHIRE: (*a*) Interest on permanent fund; (*b*) not exclusively for tuition; (*d*) district tax by vote of the people.

NEW JERSEY: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) not exclusively for tuition; (*c*) 91 per cent.; (*d*) township tax by township meeting, district tax by vote of the people,

NEW YORK: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) not exclusively for tuition; (*c*) 58 per cent.; (*d*) district tax by district trustees.

NORTH CAROLINA: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute; (*b*) for general school expenses; (*d*) county tax by board of commissioners.

OHIO: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and income of school lands; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*c*) 46 per cent.; (*d*) district tax by district board.

OREGON: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*c*) 67 per cent.; (*d*) county tax by county authorities, district tax by district directors.

PENNSYLVANIA: (*a*) Legislative appropriation; (*c*) 20 per cent.; (*d*) district tax by district school directors.

RHODE ISLAND: (*a*) Legislative appropriation; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*c*) 36 per cent.; (*d*) district tax by district trustee, with approval of school meeting.

SOUTH CAROLINA: (*a*) Tax permanently fixed by statute; (*d*) no local taxes except in cities.

TENNESSEE: (*a*) Tax periodically fixed by statute; (*b*) not exclusively for tuition; (*d*) county tax by the county court.

TEXAS: (*a*) Poll tax, one-fourth of occupation and ad valorem taxes, interest on proceeds of school lands; (*d*) local boards of school directors levy local taxes.

VERMONT: (*a*) No State tax; (*d*) town tax by selectmen.

VIRGINIA: (*a*) Tax periodically fixed by statute, and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) salaries of teachers and superintendents; (*c*) 51 per cent.; (*d*) township tax by board of supervisors.

WEST VIRGINIA: (*a*) Tax periodically fixed by statute and interest on permanent fund; (*b*) exclusively for tuition; (*c*) 47 per cent.; (*d*) district tax by board of education.

WISCONSIN: (*a*) No State tax; interest of permanent fund; (*d*) district tax by district meeting.

IX.—ANALYSIS OF IMPORTANT PARTICULARS.

I. STATE SUPERINTENDENT.

(1) *Mode of appointment.*— (*a*) Elected by the people in Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, South Carolina, West Virginia, Wisconsin—21 States; (*b*) appointed by the governor in Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Maine, Minnesota, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Tennessee—8 States; (*c*) elected by the legislature in New York, Vermont, Virginia—3 States; (*d*) appointed by State board in Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Texas—6 States.

(2) *Term of service.*— (*a*) One year in Delaware and Rhode Island—2 States; (*b*) two years in Alabama, Arkansas, Colorado, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, South Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont, Wisconsin—14 States; (*c*) three years in Maine, New Jersey, New York, Ohio—4 States; (*d*) four years in California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Nevada, North Carolina, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia—14 States; (*e*) indefinite in Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, Texas—4 States.

(3) *Duties.*— (*a*) Makes official visits in Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, Wisconsin—29 States; (*b*) apportions school revenue in Arkansas, California, Colorado, Georgia, Indiana, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Virginia, Wisconsin—18 States; (*c*) grants State licenses in Arkansas, Florida, Illinois, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Wisconsin—7 States; (*d*) prescribes or recommends text books in Arkansas, Kansas, Nebraska, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Wisconsin—6 States; (*e*) construes school law in Arkansas, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia—16 States; (*f*) hears appeals in Florida, Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Wisconsin—9 States; (*g*) appoints county superintendents in Alabama.

(4) *Number of superintendents and average length of term since creation of the office.*—Alabama 4, 2 years; Arkansas, —; California 7, 4.3 years; Colorado, —; Connecticut 7, 5.3 years; Delaware, —; Florida 4, 2 years; Georgia 2, 5 years; Illinois 6, 4 years; Indiana 12, 2.5 years; Iowa 11, 3 years; Kansas, —; Kentucky 12, 3.6 years; Louisiana 3, 3.3 years; Maine 9, 3 years; Maryland 2, 7.3 years; Massachusetts 5, 8.6 years; Michigan 6, 4.5 years; Minnesota, —; Mississippi 4, 2 years; Missouri 9, 4.1 years; Nebraska 3, 3 years; Nevada 2, 7 years; New Hampshire 17, 1.9 years; New Jersey 5, 7 years; New York, 5, 5.2 years; North Carolina 4, 7 years; Ohio 10, 3 years; Oregon, —; Pennsylvania 15, 2.3 years; Rhode Island 8, 4.2 years; South Carolina 1, 8 years; Tennessee 3, 3 years; Texas 2, 4 years; Vermont 6, 4.5 years; Virginia 1, 7 years; West Virginia 5, 3 years; Wisconsin 9, 2.7 years.

II. STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

(*a*) States having State boards: California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nevada, New Jersey, North Carolina, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia—24 States; (*b*) composed chiefly of professional teachers in California, Connecticut, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nevada, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee—13 States; (*c*) composed chiefly of State officers in Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, North Carolina, Oregon, Texas, Virginia—11 States; (*d*) appoints the State superintendent in Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Texas—6 States; (*e*) appoints county superintendents in Mississippi, New Jersey, Virginia; and county board in Florida and South Carolina—5 States; (*f*) prescribes or recommends text books in California, Connecticut, Delaware, Kentucky, Louisiana, Nevada, North Carolina, Oregon, South Carolina, Virginia—10 States; (*g*) prepares questions for use of local examiners of teachers in Indiana and Michigan—2 States; (*h*) issues State licenses in California, Colorado, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Nevada, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina—11 States.[1]

III. CHIEF COUNTY OFFICER.

(*a*) States having a county superintendent or examiner: Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin—29 States; (*b*) term of service: One year in Delaware and Vermont—2 States; three years in New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania—3 States; four years in Georgia, Illinois, and Virginia—3 States; two years in the other States above mentioned—21 States; (*c*) appointed by State superintendent in Alabama—1 State; by governor in Delaware and Florida—2 States; by State board in Mississippi, New Jersey and Virginia—3 States; by township trustees in Indiana—1 State; by school directors in Pennsylvania—1 State; by town superintendents in Vermont—1 State; by county court in Arkansas, Kentucky, and Tennessee—3 States; by county board in Georgia, Maryland, and North Carolina—3 States; elected by the people in California, Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New York, Oregon, South Carolina, West Virginia, Wisconsin—14 States; (*d*) examines and licenses teachers in Arkansas, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, Wisconsin—21 States; and is member of examining board in Alabama, California, Kansas, Kentucky, Nevada, South Carolina, West Virginia—7 States; (*e*) member of county board of education in Florida, Georgia, Indiana, North Carolina, Virginia—5 States; (*f*) visits schools in Alabama, California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, Wisconsin—23 States; (*g*) disburses or apportions school revenue in Alabama, California, Colorado, Georgia, Illinois, Kansas, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia—14 States.

IV. COUNTY BOARDS OF EDUCATION AND EXAMINATION.

(*a*) States having such boards: California, Florida, Georgia, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Nevada, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia—17 States; (*b*) examines and licenses teachers in California, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Nevada, New Jersey, Ohio, South Carolina, Texas, West Virginia—10 States; (*c*) employs teachers in Florida, Georgia, Louisiana—3 States; (*d*) prescribes text books in Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky-Maryland—4 States; (*e*) levies local school taxes in Florida, Maryland, North Caro, lina, Virginia—4 States.

V. TOWNSHIP AND DISTRICT OFFICERS.

(1) *Township trustees.*—(*a*) Levy local taxes in Iowa, Indiana—2 States; (*b*) locate and build school-houses in Indiana, Iowa, Ohio—3 States.

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[1] Several States have boards of examiners, which issue State licenses, but such boards do not exercise the powers usually exercised by State boards of education.

(2) *District trustees or directors.*—(*a*) Levy local taxes in Colorado, Delaware, Illinois, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, West Virginia, Wisconsin—14 States; (*b*) locate and build schoolhouses in California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin—23 States.

VI. EMPLOYMENT OF TEACHERS.

(*a*) By county authority in Florida, Georgia, and Louisiana—3 States; (*b*) by township authority in Alabama, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire—5 States; (*c*) by district authority in Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin—30 States.

VII. EXAMINATION AND SUPERVISION OF TEACHERS.

(*a*) Examined by county authority in Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin—31 States; (*b*) examined by town or township authorities in Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, Rhode Island—6 States; (*c*) examined by the State superintendent in Delaware—1 State; (*d*) supervised by county authority in California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, Wisconsin—22 States; (*e*) supervised by township authority in Alabama, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont—8 States; (*f*) supervised by district authority in Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Texas, West Virginia—7 States; (*g*) no supervision in Ohio; (*h*) States in which teachers are examined and supervised by the same person or persons: Alabama, California, Colorado, Connecticut,[1] Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas,[1] Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada,[1] New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina,[1] Tennessee, Virginia, Wisconsin—29 States.

VIII. FINANCIAL SYSTEM.

(1) *State revenue.*—(*a*) An ad valorem tax permanently fixed by statute levied in Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Texas, South Carolina—18 States; (*b*) an ad valorem tax periodically fixed by statute levied in Florida, Illinois, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia—5 States; (*c*) legislative appropriations from treasury in Alabama, Delaware, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island—5 States; (*d*) no State tax in Colorado, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, New Hampshire, Vermont, Wisconsin—10 States: (*e*) rank of the States in respect to the proportion which the State's school revenue bears to the amount expended for tuition: Arkansas, Kentucky, North Carolina, and South Carolina more than the whole; California, 98 per cent.; New Jersey, 91; Louisiana, 86; Alabama, 82; Indiana, 76; Maryland, 75; Oregon, 67; New York, 58; Virginia, 51; West Virginia, 47; Ohio, 46; Connecticut, 43; Maine, 42; Nebraska, 42; Massa-

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[1] The person who supervises belongs to the board which examines teachers.

chusetts, 39; Rhode Island, 36; Florida, 35; Illinois, 27; Delaware, 25; Pennsylvania, 20.

(2) *Local taxes.*[1]—(*a*) Levied by counties in Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Florida, *Georgia*, Illinois, Iowa, *Kentucky*, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Nevada, North Carolina, Oregon, Tennessee—17 States; (*b*) by townships in *Connecticut*, Illinois, Indiana, *Iowa*, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, Vermont, Virginia—10 States; (*c*) by districts in *California*, *Colorado*, *Connecticut*, Delaware, Illinois, *Iowa*, *Kansas*, *Kentucky*, Michigan, *Minnesota*, Missouri, *Nebraska*, *Nevada*, *New Hampshire*, *New Jersey*, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Texas, West Virginia, Wisconsin—23 States.

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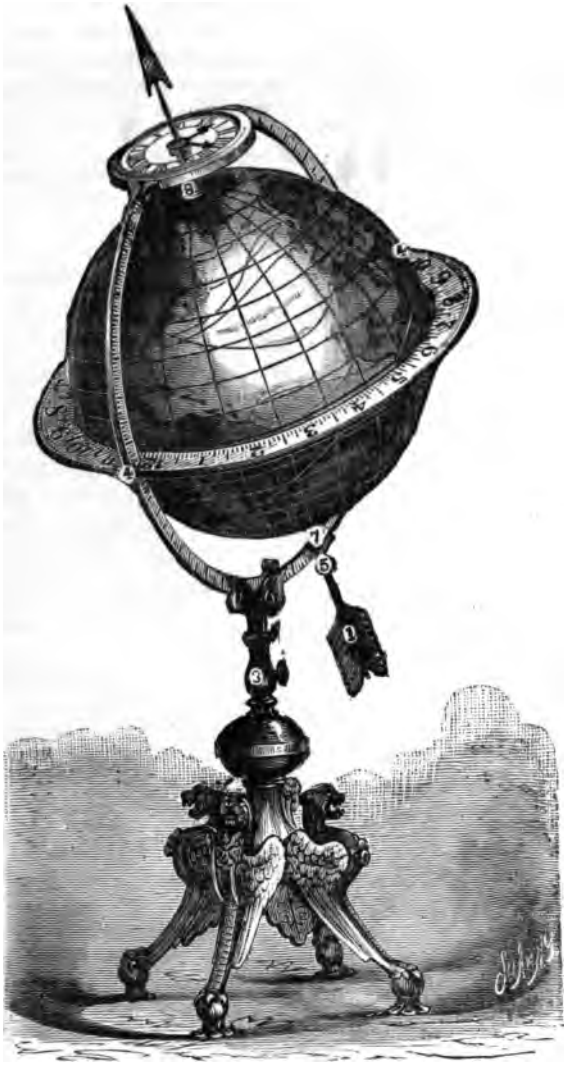
[1] In those States which are italicized the levy is made by a vote of the people.



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